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# THE Journal of the Society of Arts, AND OF THE INSTITUTIONS IN UNION.

111TH SESSION.]

FRIDAY, MAY 5, 1865.

[No. 650. VOL. XIII.]

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## Announcements by the Council.

### ORDINARY MEETINGS.

Wednesday Evenings at 8 o'clock.

MAY 10.—"On the Art of Laying Submarine Cables from Ships." By Captain JASPER SELWYN, R.N.

MAY 17.—"On the Manufacture of Encaustic Tiles and Ceramic Ornamentation by Machinery." By ZERAH COLBURN, Esq.

### CANTOR LECTURES.

The Third Course for the present Session, consisting of six Lectures, "On Some of the Most important Chemical Discoveries made within the last Two Years," by Dr. F. GRACE CALVERT, F.R.S., F.C.S. (Corresponding Member of the Royal Academy of Turin; of the Société Industrielle de Mulhouse; of the Société Impériale de Pharmacie de Paris, &c.), is now being delivered on Tuesday evenings, at Eight o'clock, as follows :—

MAY 9TH.—LECTURE 5.—On the Discoveries in the Chemistry of Rocks and Minerals.

MAY 16TH.—LECTURE 6.—On the Discoveries in the Chemistry of Metals and Alloys.

These Lectures are free to Members (without ticket), and every Member has the privilege of admitting ONE Friend to each Lecture.

## Proceedings of the Society.

### TWENTY-FIRST ORDINARY MEETING.

Wednesday, May 3, 1865; M. H. Marsh, Esq., M.P., Vice-President of the Society, in the chair.

The following candidates were balloted for and duly elected members of the Society :—

Balforn, John Edward, 6, The Lawn, Shepherds'-bush, W. Bedder, William, Saltash, Cornwall.  
Boroschitzky, J. F., 32, Tavistock-place, W.C.

Botly, William, Salisbury Villa, Upper Norwood, S.  
Buckley, R. S., Mossley, by Manchester.  
Clever, Joseph, 7, Coleman-street, E.C.  
Cozens, Samuel E., Phoenix Wharf, Southwark, S.E.  
Davison, Thomas Langmore, 2, Lavender-terrace, Laverder-hill, S.W.  
Edwards, Samuel, 13, Limes-grove, Lewisham, S.E.  
Green, John, 2, Gloucester-place, Lower Tulse-hill, S.  
Hawke, John, 3, Brockley-villas, Brockley-road, Newcross, S.E.  
McClellan, Samuel, 7, Cambridge-terrace, Upper Lewisham-road, S.E.  
Shanks, James, St. Helen's, Lancashire.  
Skelton, John, jun., M.D., 105, Great Russell-street, W.C.  
Taplin, Thomas, 14, St. James's-square, S.W.  
Westhead, Albert, 20, George-street, Hanover-square, W.  
Westhead, Edwd. S., 20, George-street, Hanover-sq., W.  
Wilkinson, T. L., 1, York-villas, Sydenham-park, S.E.  
Wynne, F. Osborne, Archcliffe Fort, Dover.

The Paper read was—

### ON COLONIZATION; ITS ASPECTS AND RESULTS.

BY WILLIAM STONES, Esq.

Having had the honour, a few years ago, of submitting to this Society a short notice of the colony of New Zealand, which led the way, I believe, to the reading of several very interesting papers treating of the colonies of Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, and a most important contribution by Dr. Forbes Watson on Indian matters, it has occurred to me that the Society might follow up the subject, and advantageously occupy an evening in the discussion of several topics not appertaining to any one colony in particular, but in connection with colonisation generally.

The short time at our command, and the space in the *Journal* to which I am limited, compel me to suppress several subjects possessing some interest, and, therefore, I pass over all reference to the different forms of ancient and modern colonisation—the aspect of colonisation in its relation to the religious institutions of England—to our literature—to English amusements—to the important question of the effects of colonisation on other races, whether slavery, extermination, or incorporation—and, lastly, to another interesting subject, the peculiar genius of Englishmen for colonising. All these on the present occasion must be omitted.

Limiting our views to the British colonies and dependencies, we may notice their number, situation, and climate. Stretching almost entirely round the globe—extending from the nearest habitable land to the north pole, through the tropics to the Falkland Islands and New Zealand in the southern hemisphere, every variety of climate, position, and production is included within the limits of the British Dominions.

Parts of all the great continents are held by Great Britain—as Canada, in North America; Honduras and British Guiana, in South America. In Africa, besides the stations of the Gambia, Gold Coast, and Sierra Leone, we have the colonies proper of the Cape of Good Hope and Natal. By our magnificent Indian Empire, Singapore, and the treaty ports of China, Asia is, to a great extent, brought under British control; while the whole continent of Australia (and I presume it may take rank as one of the five great powers) is entirely under British government. On the Continent of Europe, after all our wars and expenditure, we retain but one little spot—the coveted stronghold of Gibraltar, the key of the Mediterranean.

As a seafaring insular people, it might be supposed that we should have a natural bias or inclination to form settlements on islands; and beginning from Heligoland and the Channel Islands at our own doors, we shall find, if we trace along the subjoined sketch map, islands without number hoisting the British flag.

We note Newfoundland, Prince Edward's Island, the Bermudas, Bahamas, the West India group, Falkland Islands, St. Helena, Mauritius, Ceylon, Singapore, Hong Kong, a station in Labuan, Van Dieman's Land, and the cluster of islands known as the colony of New Zealand, and, lastly, Vancouver's Island—and Malta, in the Mediterranean; but it is quite beyond my power to accurately reckon the number of islands claimed by England, as many of those I have named include several small satellites under their government.

Not less various are the climates—Canada, with its six months of frost, snow, and ice, massive, grand, and solemn in its features, bracing and exhilarating to her hardy inhabitants; the seething plains of India, suggesting disease of liver, brevity of life, and quickness of fortune; the milder climate of Australia, where health is so good that doctors find small encouragement, and frost is little seen or felt; the clearness of the Cape, where twenty oxen, slowly toiling, drag the farmer's waggon over the sandy soil, baking, broiling, dry, yet healthy; or the foggy coasts of Newfoundland. And here we may call attention to the difference which exists in climate between the two coasts of North America. The isothermal line of 50 deg. Fahrenheit enters the German Ocean in about 53 degrees north; it reaches its highest point in the British Isles, where it touches the parallel of 54 deg. north; after this it bends southward, until, on entering the American continent, it descends to the low latitude of 40 deg. north. In its course across America its deflection is on the whole northerly, and on the eastern side it again reaches to 54 deg. north.

The eastern sides of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans are warmer, and the western sides colder, than is due to latitude merely. This fact was noticed by Captain Cook, and is owing to the cold polar waters washing the coast of Canada and China, while the warm streams from the tropics flow on to the coasts of England and Norway in the eastern hemisphere, and Vancouver's Island and British Columbia on the west coast of America. Hence, British Columbia and Vancouver's Island have much milder winters than places in Canada under the same parallel of latitude.

*Rivers.*—Some of the colonies and dependencies have large rivers, as the St. Lawrence, whose vast watercourse forms the great outlet of the magnificent chain of lakes or inland seas of North America. India, with its sacred mythical rivers, carrying us in thought back beyond the reach of authentic history; and the islands of New Zealand,

which are pierced in every direction by numerous navigable streams. On the other hand, some of our largest colonies are almost totally deficient of rivers, as those on the great continent of Australia, in which railways must be relied upon to provide inland carriage.

Of harbours, we may boast the unrivalled Halifax and Sydney—one in each hemisphere—only perhaps exceeded in beauty by that of Rio de Janeiro.

*Productions.*—We shall hereafter refer to the variety of productions more in detail, suffice now to say that, in 1862, Canada sent us timber to the value of £1,237,689; that upwards of 21½ millions of sheep grew wool for us in Australia and New Zealand; and our own colonies of Australia and Vancouver's Island produced £8,000,000 of gold; while, of colonial sugar, we imported to the value of upwards of two millions.

*Variety of Population, Religions, and Laws.*—From the circumstance of so many of our colonies having been acquired by conquest, it almost necessarily follows that we must have a many-toned and hued population subject to British rule. We can only mention the French in Canada and the Mauritius, Dutch at the Cape, African blacks in the West Indies and in Africa, Hindoos, Chinese, Malays, Australians, New Zealanders. Nor are the religions less diverse—Protestant, Catholic, Mahomedan, Hindoo, Parsee, savages who believe in wood and stone images, and savages who have hardly risen to any idea of a God at all. Equally various are the systems of law in force—British law, Code Napoleon, local laws, and heathen customs, so long as they are not repugnant to good citizenship, are left tolerably free to their own workings.

Amongst all these varied peoples, tongues, colours, customs, and habits, British rule has, we believe, resulted in two profound convictions and enjoyments—a sense of perfect protection of person and property, and freedom of thought and action.

*Acquisition.*—Inspection of the accompanying table will at once show the very varying modes in which this country has obtained its colonies and dependencies. The column “mode of acquisition” testifies to many a hard-fought battle by sea and land. The tale of Wolfe's battle of the Heights of Abraham, or the attack and siege of Gibraltar, cannot be read at this distance of time without feelings of glowing pride. Every West India island has its tale of courageous attack or sagacious defence. And those which tell of less warlike deeds are not without their interest from another point of view. We owe our acquaintance with them to the privations, patient endurance, skill, energy, and genius of such bold, self-reliant men as Cook, who, in vessels not larger than a moderate-sized yacht (the *Investigator* we all recollect lying off our hall of meeting until within the last few years, doing good service in her last days in the humble form of a Thames Police-station), sailed into unknown seas at the Antipodes, tracked and surveyed the strange coasts, returning home with important results, and contributing largely to the geographical and scientific knowledge, and high moral position of his native country. So judiciously did he conduct his explorations and communications with savage tribes that his name is still remembered in the South Seas as the introducer of various animals and vegetables with which the people were previously unacquainted, and the name of Cook is revered as their kind and courteous benefactor. No one ever heard in those regions a whisper against his fair fame.

#### SOCIAL ASPECTS.

Few rich people emigrate; few with a good commercial opening before them leave the land of their birth. Strivers amongst the middle classes, younger sons, poor and labouring men, principally the latter, are the classes of which emigrants principally are and should be composed—men with restriction of field at home and small margin between income and necessary expenditure. The two aspects of colonisation from a social point of view, which I wish prominently to bring before you, are—

1st. The direct benefit to the emigrant; and 2nd. The indirect benefit to the home-stayer.

*The Emigrant.*—A competent workman no sooner arrives in any of the colonies than he finds ready and full employment at wages which, if economical and provident in his habits, leave him a large margin between income and outgoings. Taking the agricultural as the lowest type and worst paid of English workmen, the farm labourer on reaching a colony obtains for his work both money payment and ample rations, the former alone generally averaging more than his total highest remuneration at home. He is thus at once relieved from all care on the subject of procuring food. Meat, which in England he tasted perhaps once a week only, he now has every day, and three times a day if he likes; and the weekly wages, which in England had to provide him with food, housing, and clothes, can now be devoted to the purchase of luxuries, or, if prudent, by saving a portion of his income for a time, he can soon reach a position enabling him either to buy a small plot of land for himself, which he can always obtain for a few shillings per acre, or to join in the renting of a sheep-run on shares, thus laying the foundation of a fortune. A few years of more or less rude success, during which the emigrant has learnt self-reliance, and he, who would probably have passed his life at home as a mechanic, or, perchance, risen to the dignity of a foreman, and unless by special fortune never attained to any social or political importance, perhaps never possessed a vote, becomes in the colony a person of means, can afford to purchase a good house, good furniture, to live well, even luxuriously, is entitled to vote for local officials and the legislature, enters into the discussion of public matters, and gradually comes to have an opinion of his own, which he enunciates in the press or in speeches at public meetings, and every little place has its newspaper, in which argumentative colonists carry on their discussions. These discussions determine his choice of a member for the legislature, if himself desirous of remaining a simple citizen, but if ambitious, he feels that no impediment exists to his becoming a legislator himself. With character and sufficient education he may succeed in leading a local assembly, but if limited in his oratorical powers he must be content to be a silent member, though not the less useful. Thus men, whose whole life would probably have been restricted to the questions of daily wages and the propriety of strikes, or a low murmur about their exclusion from electoral rights, gradually open their minds to questions of revenue, taxation, political freedom, colonial rights, exploration, harbours, fisheries, boundaries, settlements, education, the improvement of estates, and the general public good. These briefly are some of the advantages which accrue to those who emigrate.

*Home-stayers.*—The advantages to those who remain at home are numerous, although apparently less direct. First, there is the withdrawal of a large per-centage of competitors from the labour market. The law of supply and demand obtains, in the case of labour, as in that of other commodities. If a given number of employers have need for, say nine men, and ten workmen apply for the work, the employer will reduce the wages of all the nine required to the lowest possible amount; the labourers, in fact, compete with one another as to which one shall be left out of work; but if the employers have work for nine men, and only eight are obtainable, the employers compete with one another for the services of the men by offering inducements, generally in the form of increasing their wages. Hence, the importance of emigration, from a labourer's point of view—transferring the competition from the shoulders of the workman to those of the master. That this has been the case during the last ten or fifteen years will be evident, if we investigate the present rate of agricultural wages, and compare it with the rate which prevailed at the former period. I am aware that another cause besides emigration has been operating in the direction to raise wages—I refer to the introduction of machinery into agricultural pursuits. When threshing

was done by manual labour, one man was almost as good as another, but the man who can drive, stoke, or feed a threshing-machine is no longer a common labourer, but a skilled workman; and unless his wages be raised above those of a mere labourer he will speedily seek some other engagement—his intelligence, his mind, must be paid for. With a diminution of demand, fewer permanent hands being now required upon farms, the great reason for wages being higher at the present time than formerly, can only be from the fact of large draughts of men having been enticed from England by the prospect opening to them in our colonies, and by that means withdrawn from the home-labour market.

Number of Emigrants from the United Kingdom, distinguishing the Nationality and Destination, for the Year 1862.

Destination of Emigrants.	Year.	Englsh.	Scotch.	Irish.	Foreigners.	Not distinguished.	Total.
United States .....	1862	14,180	1,025	33,521	2,398	7,592	58,706
Brit. North America ..	"	2,576	2,645	3,107	137	7,057	15,522
Australian Colonies. ..	"	17,827	8,599	12,402	652	2,363	41,843
Other places .....	"	904	327	650	134	3,123	5,143
Total .....	"	35,687	12,596	49,680	3,311	20,140	121,214

From Mr. Morton's paper, read before this Society on 8th December, 1859, it appears that the wages of agricultural labourers throughout Great Britain have risen, on an average, about 20 per cent. between the years 1849 and 1859. All this proves, says Mr. Morton, that the labouring force in agriculture is better paid than it used to be, and that the enormous extension of machinery and of steam power lately has not been to the injury of the farm labourer.

Not only have wages been largely improved by emigration, but there is another point of influence upon social life which must not pass without mention. Speak to a person in whatever sphere of life we may, it will be almost instantly ascertained that a brother, sister, relative, or intimate friend is settled in some distant colony; and with such emigrants the dwellers at home keep up a correspondence more or less regular, bringing about a knowledge of the world and its varying interests vastly different from that which obtained only a few years ago, when it was not unusual to meet with persons whose geographical knowledge was bounded by the limits of their native village or town. I speak a fact when I say that within the last twenty years I have myself conversed with a country resident, the proprietor of the farm he cultivated, who, living within 25 miles of a railway and a seaport, to which steamers were running daily, had never seen either a railway, a locomotive, or a steam-vessel, and all my attempts at explanation utterly broke down when I found that his utmost idea of a steam vessel's mode of propulsion was by sweeps, as he termed them, similar, as he supposed, to the small oars of a boat on the mill pond. The views of the world which the emigrant obtains are scarcely less different than the expansion which is taking place in the minds of the home stayers on the great interests which affect our country. Further, every man who emigrates may be said to support one at home, by becoming a purchaser of English manufactured goods, and thus are the home-stayers benefited; to how large an extent will be more apparent when we have treated of the commercial results of our colonies. In fine, the physical, moral, and social condition of both these two great parties to which we have referred is rapidly changing and, I believe, improving. Two little incidents which, from their coming under my own notice, I may relate as bearing on this part of the subject. In the depth of a bitter winter, a group of labouring men were huddling round an inn fire, at which they were kindly permitted by the host to warm themselves, and, on

inquiring as to the cause of so many able-bodied men lounging about, I was informed that they could not get work, and were not allowed to go into the Union until they had been out of employment six weeks. They added that there were forty men in the like distress in that parish, a purely agricultural one, the coveted wages when in full work, for which they were so anxious, being some 8s. per week. Incendiary fires were frequent that autumn and winter; if my memory serves me correctly, eight were counted in my evening walks during one and the same week. Is it not appalling to reflect upon such a state of things? Starving men burning abundance. In my own mind, I have often contrasted this sad condition of matters with the cheering prospects indicated in the following simple tale, for the accuracy of which I also vouch. When I was in one of our colonies, an Irish emigrant once solicited me to write a letter for him to an old friend at home, which I assented to do. "Tell him," said he, "that if he has not plenty of work to come out. Tell him we came out safely and comfortably. Tell him, sir, it is a beautiful country. Tell him there is plenty of work here;" and then he related various domestic pieces of intelligence as to the increase of his family, &c. "Well," said I, after penning all the subjects as he dictated them, "anything more?" Considering awhile, he said, "Nothing, your honour, thank ye;" but, recollecting himself, added, "Oh, please, tell him there is plenty of pork and potatoes." A great truth lurks under this last sentence, for our physical well-being is at the foundation of all civilization, science, art, and the amenities of life.

#### WHO SHOULD EMIGRATE.

This leads me to offer a few remarks on the great question—Shall I emigrate? Every person falls into one of two classes, desirable or dead-weights. Men with families, likely to settle down permanently and become the backbone of the colonies, are desirable, and if possessed of moderate capital, so much the better. Very desirable colonists are those working men who have a sound knowledge of some handicraft, as bricklayers, carpenters, masons, blacksmiths. Farm labourers, shepherds, are also valuable; and subordinate to these, all men enjoying good health, and able to do a hard day's work of any rough kind. Of the female class we should like a supply of country domestic servants, and handy lasses, knowing how to milk, wash, and iron, boil a potato, make a pudding, and roast a joint. To such we should be quite willing to give high wages as long as we could keep them from the allurements of some prosperous mechanic or successful farmer. Speaking as a colonist, I may say there are whole groups of people we do not want and would much rather be without. Of professional men we have more than enough. Legal men are so abundant at home, and the chances of great success so uncertain and rare, that no wonder the overflowings of the profession seek to obtain advantage of every opening possible in the colonies. Again, when it is remembered that every emigrant vessel must carry a surgeon, it will at once be seen how superabundant must be the members of that profession in some of the colonies. 40,000 emigrants go to Australia every year, conveyed in 160 or 200 ships, and as many of the surgeons do not return, but remain in the colonies, we may form some idea of the yearly addition to the medical branch of the community. The needlewomen, the sempstress class, are not of value to us; accustomed to town life, weak, feeble, unenergetic, not used to domestic work, they find little occupation, and are a burthen to us. For young men who have not learnt a trade, men of the pen only, we have but little room; there is always a large supply on hand, and as living is comparatively dearer than at home, they are the most disadvantageously placed of any class in the colonies. They know no trade or handicraft, and are, as a rule, physically unable to do laborious work, and therefore are far worse off than the commonest unskilled labourer. One morning, not long ago, a young man called upon me with a note of introduction, and informed me that he was

desirous of my opinion on the subject of his emigrating. From his somewhat worn aspect and the aroma of strong tobacco which environed him, I was rather puzzled how to advise him, and therefore requested him to state his own views, projects, and ideas, so that I might confirm his plans or suggest some deviation. Judge my astonishment when I heard his first question, "What hats would you advise me to take?" "To sell?" said I. "Oh, no; to wear." Without meaning a pun or innuendo, I could not avoid saying, "A wide-a-wake." I need scarcely add, that young gentlemen who are very particular about the sort of hat they should wear, we do not much require.

#### COMMERCIAL ASPECTS AND RESULTS.

It is worthy of note that for the supply of the staples of our principal manufactures we, at the present time, mainly rely upon our own colonies and dependencies. The following very brief reference to a few of the principal items may suggest rather than fully demonstrate the extent of our transactions in this respect:—

*Timber.*—For timber we largely resort to Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, whence we imported, in 1862, no less than to the value of upwards of three millions sterling. Mahogany is obtained from Honduras, and teak we obtain from our Indian possessions.

*Cotton.*—The cultivation of cotton has so far progressed in our own dominions, more especially since the war in the United States, that the import value in 1862 from purely British possessions, was no less than eleven millions sterling.

*Wool.*—For the important staple of our wool manufactures we now, to a very great extent, depend upon the vast pasture lands of Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, and Natal; the total value of the wool produce of these colonies being now estimated at £6,832,578 per annum.

*Fish* forms a large article of trade and export from some of our North American colonies, to a greater extent than most of us would suppose, viz., £1,450,000 yearly.

*Sugar.*—We imported from our West India Islands, the East Indies, and the Mauritius, to the value of nearly £3,500,000.

*Gold.*—All will recollect seeing in the Exhibition of 1862 the pyramid representing the mass of gold obtained from Australia since the discovery of that precious metal there in 1851. The pile represented many millions sterling, more than ever came into the possession of Croesus or the desire of Midas.

#### TOTAL GOLD PRODUCTIONS FROM 1850 TO 1863 INCLUSIVE.

Old Sources .....	£202,793,000
British Columbia .....	5,605,000
Australia and New Zealand .....	136,388,000
California and United States .....	142,200,000
Other Countries .....	1,018,000

Total..... £488,004,000

These most important and valuable items of our colonial commerce are for the most part either the unassisted productions of nature, needing but the rudest kind of labour to extract them from their sites, or prepare them for the market, or otherwise requiring but the simplest form of attention as sheep farming, and chiefly depending upon the mild equable character of the climate for successful and profitable results. Let me here call attention to the following return of exports from our colonies, extracted from the Board of Trade Returns for 1862:—

#### EXPORTS FROM THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES, 1862.

Cotton .....	£10,203,470
Coffee .....	2,141,310
Fish .....	1,450,819
Gold .....	8,799,553
Rum .....	553,177
Sugar .....	6,600,232
Wood and timber ...	3,263,044
Wool .....	8,305,152
Principally sent to Great Britain.	

How are these mighty heaps of raw produce paid for by the mother country? Chiefly, if not entirely, by its manufactures.

In a populous country only the most skilled workman has at all any chance of success; the mere manual labourer remains, as a rule, in his routine sphere of everlasting grinding work; but in a new country the most ordinary, least-skilled labourer rises into a condition of hope, and by his largely-increased wages, can and does become a great consumer of English manufactured goods. As a general principle, it is cheaper and better for the colonies to send home their raw materials to be prepared by the skill, machinery, and appliances of England, and re-import the manufactured goods, than attempt to work up the raw material in the colonies. The abundance of coal, the perfection of machinery, and the cheapness of labour, all tend to secure this result in the most economical manner; hence the wisest of the colonial governments look for their continued prosperity rather to the still further development of their unexhausted, and, in many cases, almost inexhaustible natural resources, than to the introduction of manufactures.

The necessary revenue is generally raised by a moderate import duty upon the principal articles of consumption, by an export duty upon some articles of great production, assisted by the proceeds of the sale of government waste lands. A few of the colonial legislatures have unwisely increased the import duty upon some articles, even more with a view to protect their incipient manufactures than for strictly revenue purposes, thereby artificially raising, to the injury of all, the price of the highly-taxed article for the benefit of the very few colonists who may enter into the manufacture of the goods thus selected for special taxation. This course is a great wrong to the body of colonists and most injurious to the English manufacturers, who help to pay the taxes—increased for the defence of the colonies—and we plainly state to our colonial friends that this short-sighted policy is bearing and will bear bitter fruits for them in all discussions of colonial questions. Not many have adopted a tariff of this kind, and obviously such a course is contrary to the first principles of political economy.

Disregarding these pernicious exceptions, we may say, speaking generally, that in return for the raw materials supplied by the colonies the mother country pays in manufactured goods of all kinds. In proof of this we have only to refer to the list of exports, from which it will be seen what extensive customers our colonies annually are to the mother country.

#### EXPORTS OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

The following is an account of the declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to each British possession in the year 1864:—

	£.
Heligoland .....	15
Channel Islands .....	1,016,171
Gibraltar* .....	1,206,206
Malta and Gozo .....	746,385
Ionian Islands (ceded to the Kingdom of Greece June 2, 1864) .....	110,238
Western Africa (British) .....	269,173
Ascension .....	10,303
St. Helena .....	34,542
Cape of Good Hope .....	1,814,877
Kaffraria .....	29,365
Natal .....	428,135
Mauritius .....	658,258
Aden .....	31,758

\* The return for Gibraltar must, I should suppose, have some mysterious connection with Spanish smuggling, or is it purely as the depôt of the Barbary States that it figures so high.

India:—Bombay and Scinde .....	9,176,886
Madras .....	1,590,233
Bengal and Pegu .....	9,128,526
Singapore and the Eastern Straits ...	1,185,680
Ceylon .....	828,368
Hong Kong .....	1,610,957
Australia:—West Australia .....	97,596
South Australia .....	1,116,767
Victoria .....	5,816,933
New South Wales .....	2,742,780
Queensland .....	451,365
Tasmania .....	266,926
New Zealand .....	1,866,312
British North America .....	5,611,276
Bermudas .....	656,777
British West India Islands .....	2,659,778
British Guiana .....	803,503
Belize (British Honduras) .....	205,015
Falkland Islands .....	12,826

Total to British Possessions... 51,683,430

Several other points of commercial interest, deserve a short notice in this review.

*Ship-building.*—At the earlier period of our colonial history, ships were small, their provisioning bad and scanty, the water disgusting, voyages long and tedious. As the number of emigrants increased, it became advisable to enlarge the size of the ships, which brought another view into the consideration of the owners—the shorter the passage the less provisions would be consumed, and hence the shipowner came to have a direct interest in lessening the duration of the passage to the lowest possible period, as the value of every day's provisions for three or four hundred persons amounts to a considerable sum. Hence sprang improvements in ship-building, and increased attention to the routes, great circle sailing, and observations of the trade winds, the best points for crossing the line so as to avoid delay from calms, the importance of making southing as fast as possible, to lessen the length of the degrees of longitude, &c. As a rough approximate rule, it may be taken that a ship of 400 tons register would be 110 days making the passage to Australia, and every increase of 100 tons in burden would decrease the passage two days, or for each enlargement of 50 tons, one day less in the passage may be reckoned; if this is approximately correct, a vessel of 1500 tons register would make the passage in 88 days.

The legal enactments for the provisioning both of poor emigrants and sailors have tended very much to the comfort of all; and whereas disease, particularly scurvy, formerly destroyed large numbers of our seamen, we seldom hear of a case of total or even serious attack of that malady. So far from the long voyage being now hurtful to the health of the emigrants, this generally improves on the passage—they have no pressing anxieties, are well and regularly fed, breathe the fresh invigorating sea air, and have an ever present medical attendant in case of sickness.

Our principal steam packet companies owe their development to the necessities of our colonial intercourse rather than to foreign trade. Nor ought we to omit noticing the vast strides which steam ship-building has taken, not only for the requirements of main ocean lines, but in every part of the world. On local lines of traffic, steam vessels built in the Thames, Mersey, and Clyde, are daily coasting the shores of India, New Zealand, and Australia, and the two widely separated coasts of British North America, driven by men of English northern tongue; some may be, like Albert Smith's engineer, enduring and fattening upon a grievance, but for the most part all doing their duty honestly and thoroughly as Englishmen should.

*Banks and Monetary Interests.*—Another important commercial interest is that connected with banking and monetary affairs. Some of our most prosperous banking

institutions have their principal seats or spheres of action in our colonies and dependencies. Their uniformly sound management causes them to furnish safe investments for English capitalists, and the high rate of interest in the colonies enables them to pay large dividends regularly. From the columns of the *Economist* I have compiled the following schedule, which, necessarily imperfect, as it only includes those which have agencies or branches in England, may illustrate rather than exhibit the vast monetary interests which open fields for investment in connection with our colonies. Some of the great loans are guaranteed by the British Government, and the money raised has generally been honestly applied to the furtherance of the true interests of the colony.

(Want of space will only allow of the totals being given.)

GRAND TOTAL.	
Stock, Loans .....	£50,236,093
Railways .....	78,899,635
Banks, Insurance, and Miscellaneous Companies .....	44,823,737
Total.....	£173,959,465

Hence we have engagements for the great total of one hundred and seventy-four millions sterling, invested under the laws of our own country, and in many instances guaranteed either by the Colonial or Indian Governments, and in some cases by the Home Government, yielding at an average rate say of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum, an income or profit to the investors of thirteen millions, without fear of repudiation or revolution.

*Postage, Telegraphs, Railways.*—The enormous dimensions of our oversea postal system are largely owing to the increase of population in our colonies. I would merely remind you that in almost every day's *Times* you may read of vessels from the east or west with so many passengers and, without exaggeration, letters numbering up to hundreds of boxes. These hundreds of boxes contain thousands of messages of goodwill towards men—cheerful, loving words from children to parents—remittances of comfort to the old folks\*—family gossips and the effusions of affection borne on the waters from afar to many cottage homes in the land.

Telegraphs either have been laid down, or are in course of construction, from England to India, from one colony of Australia to another—thousands of miles in length—from one end of New Zealand to the other—and all through Canada. The gigantic efforts now contemplated a second time to span the Atlantic by a telegraphic cable, will if successful, connect the mother country with the outlying picket, if I may so say, of her American offspring. And while actually writing these sentences a telegraphic message comes from Bombay to London in a very few hours, and we have news from Melbourne in 28 days.

A whole evening might be advantageously devoted to the consideration of colonial railways—whether the Grand Trunk Railway, with its colossal bridge, and although perhaps born before its time, the true type of a main line, some 1,200 miles in length, running through and serving a whole country—or those spreading lines through every colony, joining towns and districts and annihilating distance—or those most important lines in India, enabling the produce of the interior to reach the shipping ports at a small charge, and, what is even more unexpected and astonishing, breaking down the distinctions of caste, all castes meeting on the common and neutral ground of the same railway carriage. The preceding statement of outlay on railways better expresses their importance than any observations our limits on this occasion will admit.

*Machinery and the Fine Arts.*—For machinery of all kinds our mechanical engineers find their most regular

and profitable demand is for exportation to the colonies. Steam machinery of every description, agricultural implements, mill-work, guns, metal work, electro-metallurgy, and work in the precious metals, jewellery, watches, clocks, glass, and furniture of the more expensive kinds all find their more or less prominent place in our colonial export trade.

#### TRANSPORTATION.

The objects of criminal treatment are twofold—to secure the community by deterring the evil-disposed, and to reform the fallen. In order to deter, punishments should be uniform, moderate, and certain, which unfortunately has not been the case with our English system, in which punishment has been irregularly and unequally inflicted in amount, and most uncertain in duration. This aspect of punishment concerns the criminal only so far as enabling him to speculate and rejoice at the chance of immunity; it is within the power of the free community to rectify these errors, and it is beyond our province to enter into that discussion; our subject regards transportation from the colonist's point of view. Many of our colonies were founded for penal purposes, and roads, public buildings, important clearings, and a great deal of most useful rough work, have been constructed and accomplished by convicts, farmed out to the settlers, receiving food and clothing in return for their labour, thus placing the free colonists in the position of enjoying the results of unpaid labour without the capital outlay for slaves. As emigrants increase, and colonies obtain the advantages of the competition of free labour, it is obvious that not only is the stigma of convictism disagreeable, but the free community of labourers will object to the presence of competitors of the tainted class. If, then, the colonies will not have our convicts, we must either let them loose at home under some sort of control, or keep them in confinement. Tickets of leave, in an old country, are sources of unmitigated evil, both to the free workman and the convict; if a convict is accepted to his prejudice, the former infers that virtue goes for nothing with employers, and those who may be required to work with ticket-of-leave men must either give up their employment or lower their tone of morals by associating at the same bench with convicted thieves and murderers. The convict also finds himself exposed to such a terrific competition that he seldom succeeds, and generally returns to his old courses. Must we, then, shut them up within four walls, with no society but that of their own sex, hardening and brutalising their already degraded being?—a treatment certainly not in accordance with man's nature, or the laws which are stamped upon the universe. By allowing a criminal to obtain a reduction of his term as the result of a seeming religious change, the doorway was opened to his being again let loose upon society, and this tempted him to become a hypocrite. The tendency of recently-improved legislation is to make him a suicide or a maniac. What hope can any man have who is doomed to be immured within prison walls for ten long years? It is a living death, or worse; and one of the most humanising instincts of man—the family—is altogether lost sight of. What do you propose to do with their wives? Will you release these wretched women from their marriage ties? And although a rigid law may say it has nothing to do with that, the instinct of nature echoing the law of God has something to do with this matter. As, then, man within four stone walls can have but little hope, and you thereby destroy the most softening influence of his nature, is there any other way by which you can equally as well secure the absence of the convict from society and yet not entirely destroy hope? All who have been in the colonies will recollect that, in the days of transportation, it was not at all an unfrequent occurrence for the wife of a convict to follow him; in many cases the husband was apportioned to his wife as her assigned servant, and circumstances being favourable, they frequently reached a respectable position to which they not only could never have had the slightest chance of attaining, but would probably never

\* Through the Post-office alone remittances were sent in 1862 by settlers to their friends in Great Britain—From North America, £381,901; from Australia, £81,123.



have thought of attempting in the mother country. Many ticket-of-leave men would reform if they could, but they have not and never can have an opportunity for restoration in England; they have no honest mode of life open to them. What shall be done with them, then? The Falkland Islands appear to me suitable for the formation of a penal settlement. They are sparsely inhabited, escape would not be easy, and the climate is not severe. Some of the agricultural class of convicts might be allowed to settle upon small garden farms, and work out the payment by the produce; others might usefully employ themselves in those occupations which they might be previously taught in the home prisons, as tailoring, shoemaking, carpentry, blacksmithing, &c. Good behaviour for a term might entitle them to send for their wives, and thus some ray of hope of constructing a family be held out to them; and a face to face grapple with nature, albeit rough and stormy, would be more likely to improve and elevate the man, when brightened by hope, than the morbid influences of imprisonment.

#### ADVANTAGES OF COLONIZATION.

The surface of Great Britain being limited it follows that, as the population increases, the capacity of the land, if devoted to purely agricultural purposes, would soon be overtaken and eventually surpassed.

The needs of a large and increasing population can only then be met by increasing the non-agricultural proportion of those who remain in England and by transplanting others.

In 1861, the population per thousand appears to have been composed of

24 Professional.
574 Domestic.
31 Commercial.
101 Agricultural.
242 Industrial.
28 Not defined.

1,000

It would seem, then, that as the quantity of land cannot be enlarged, the agricultural class must remain stationary in numbers or diminish, which latter is the more likely to be the case from the improved mechanical appliances brought into use for the cultivation of the soil, and it is within possibility that the industrial, which even now is more than double the agricultural, might eventually become too productive for the needs of its own limited community. The endeavour, therefore, of all sound statesmanship should be to adjust the demand to the production, and by such encouragement of emigration lead to the growth of purchasers in some measure proportionate to the necessary increase of manufactures.

Our colonies afford this plantation or nursery-ground for the growth of purchasers, the aggregate of the land available being, according to the table at page 414, practically unlimited, and the home deficiency of area is thus amply compensated by the extent of our colonial possessions. Another advantage of having so large an extent of acreage, in the form of colonies, is that the emigrants do not remove from the laws and manners to which they have been accustomed; they convey with them, and find on arrival, the same political, religious, and social thoughts and habits. Similar climate, area, and soil, would not be so advantageous, if the emigrants felt that they were going to a country under a despotic government, or one where the laws would be found to differ much from those of the land they had left. The tastes and habits of the emigrants having been acquired in England, they, to a great extent, lead to a demand for home productions for their gratification, a very important matter in a commercial point of view.

A third great advantage derived from the colonies is the sphere they afford for the prosecution of theoretical

and practical science. And here multitudinous names crowd upon the memory. One dare hardly individualise for fear that the very next moment the name of a second equally bright star may shoot across the sky.

Let me remind you how much we owe to Captain Cook pre-eminently, to Banks, and Solander, and that our most learned botanist, Robert Brown spent years in Australia; the speculative Darwin, whose views are shaking the scientific world, studied the coral reefs when out amongst the Australian colonies. The names of Beete Jukes, Logan, Bennett, Falconer, Hooker, and Huxley are symbols of legions of similar worthies, whose bold, broad philosophy has been to a great extent the result of the open eye due to the deep questioning of nature in her various forms in our new colonies. India opened out new fields for botanical research; Australia disclosed an entirely new series of animal life; and Canada has afforded a magnificent field to our geologists, the earliest form of animal life on our globe having been there recently discovered in a stratum far below that in which life had been previously observed.

And for practical science how vast the field. The marine of the country is employed and developed in the form of large emigrant vessels and coasters to the incredible extent of many millions of tons. Need I do more than call attention to the innumerable surveyors, engineers, architects, and educators who find ample scope and remuneration for their talents in the colonies. The surveys and canals of India, the railway and bridges of Canada, the road, harbour, dock, telegraph, and mill works in every latitude and longitude witness to the enlarged school of mechanical and engineering science for which England has become the centre and eye of the world.

The late Sir George Cornewall Lewis, in his valuable essay on the Government of Dependencies, enumerates six advantages, or supposed advantages, which nations have thought they derived from colonies, viz. :—

- 1st. Tribute and revenue paid by the dependency.
- 2nd. Assistance for military or naval purposes furnished by the dependency.
- 3rd. Advantages from its trade with a dependency in the sense of a monopoly of special privileges.
- 4th. Facilities afforded by dependencies for the emigration of its surplus population, and an advantageous employment of its capital.
- 5th. Transportation of convicts to a dependency.
- 6th. Glory.

It will be seen from my preceding remarks that scarcely any of these are now of great importance to England as the dominant country. If any, her benefits are of a moral and intellectual character. I have named the extent of land, similarity of laws, sphere for the cultivation of theoretical and practical science, but I cannot pass over another advantage, as I regard it—I refer to the variety and quality of the openings for the studying and learning the art of government which our numerous colonies and dependencies present. Educated men from England depart from our shores to undertake the government or charge of millions of men scattered over all the earth, thousands of miles from the mother country—called to rule mixed races, to rely upon themselves, to raise armies if need be, to work upon, to countenance, to conciliate conflicting interests and passions; as dictators to decide for themselves on the moment, and with only the salutary moral fear of a distant English public opinion to check or control them beyond the high tone of their own character. And in this respect our colonies afford a magnificent school, highly beneficial to the colonies or dependencies, the mother country, and the world. Do we not all feel a tingle of proud satisfaction that men of the stamp of Hastings, Clive, Wellesley, Metcalfe, Elgin, Canning, and Lawrence should govern large portions of the human race, and that they are our countrymen, in many cases sprung from the ranks by the



native energy of their surpassing talents, which have raised them to the highest positions of fame and usefulness.

#### DISADVANTAGES OF COLONIES TO THE HOME COUNTRY.

The advantages we have named are not without drawbacks. Philosophers tell us that the effect of natural forces diminishes in far greater ratio than the mere distance from the centre of power, and history records that as nations or conquerors have attempted to rule over or conquer remote provinces the hold has ever been loose, difficult, *transitory*, and failing, generally felt to be oppressive by the province, always exhaustive of men and money to the dominant state. And wherever the governing power has either attempted to compel the inhabitants to render military service or to contribute by taxation to the needs of the central authority, the result has been the same, whether under Greek, Roman, Spanish, or English rule. Confining our thoughts to a slight survey of our own English position, we may observe that our army being small and derived from voluntary enlistment, the necessity of garrisoning so many colonies places us at a great disadvantage in carrying on any considerable military operations by land, whether at home or abroad. Had the whole English army been available for the Crimean war our national position in that affair would have been altogether different, both as regards allies and foes. Were the islands of Great Britain the only coasts we have to guard, our fleet would be amply sufficient, when at its least effective strength, to render us safe from attack; but the fleet, like the army, is scattered in detached fragments the world around—a frigate here—a liner there—thousands of miles apart. Not only do we suffer from the available force at home being so crippled in numbers, but the retention of colonies requires both our army and navy to be much more numerous and, therefore, more costly than if we had the home country only to defend, and this great expense (it, perhaps, would not be too much to say half the total) falls heavily on the English taxpayer. Our colonies present our most vulnerable point to an enemy, the attack can be concentrated upon any one spot, whereas the means of defence are widely scattered. Can anyone doubt for a moment that the unseemly language and overbearing conduct of the United States of America during so many years past have been entirely owing, not to any real cause of offence given by the people or the government of this country, but to the fact that we have one vulnerable place in the event of war with the Federal States. We should have the almost impossible task of defending a land frontier of twelve hundred miles in length which could be crossed at any spot by an invading army. Combinations of other naval powers could pounce upon some of our colonies and temporarily occupy and cause great distress to, if not permanently possess them, but in the case of Canada no sea voyage is necessary, we are exposed to the attacks of an ambitious people, now possessing a large army, the reabsorption of which into the ordinary occupations of life will require all the judgment of the governing powers.

It may be said that the Imperial Government can, by moderation, wisdom, and uprightness, prevent such a result, or at least so control its conduct, that, whatever may ensue, it will stand justified in the sight of the world. The danger, and the vast expense it causes, nevertheless exist, and Canada is a continual anxiety.

Thus far with reference to the danger we incur from other nations and governments on account of our colonies. In many cases, however, the home country has to bear the burden, wholly or in part, of local wars to which she has no inclination—wars entered into without her consent, contrary to her advice, and for purely local reasons and advantages, and out of which England—as England—can derive neither benefit nor honour. I refer to such wars as many of those we have had in India, at the Cape, and, at the present moment, in New Zealand. One or two sentences in reference to the last will put this subject in a clear light. That question has three

aspects:—1st. The Imperial. 2nd. The Colonial. 3rd. The Native.

Before New Zealand became a colony, the Imperial Government entered into an arrangement with the natives, one item of which arrangement was that the natives should be allowed to keep their land if they chose, and neither be compelled to part with it by sale nor have it taken away. The Colonial Government cannot cancel the obligations of that treaty, whether wisely or unwisely made, but years subsequently to the arrangement, and after a constitution had been granted to the European part of the community, the anxiety to obtain land for speculative purposes (it cannot be for present settlement, because no one will contend that the land now owned by Europeans is brought under cultivation to anything like its full extent), caused the Colonial Government to purchase land from a chief who was *not* the rightful owner. When possession was refused, instead of pausing and inquiring into the merits of the case, a course suggested to the Local Government, by the Bishop and the Chief Justice on the spot, and by myself in England to the late Duke of Newcastle, the *wrong man's title* was supported by an armed force, and this I consider to have been the primary cause of the present war. After the arrival of the new Governor, the question of the title was investigated and the land *given up*, but bitter feelings had arisen, revenge and all the bad passions which murder, robbery, and burning create, had by this time taken deep root and extended. And England has had to pay some millions of money for a war incurred chiefly about this miserable squabble respecting 600 acres of land.

I name this one case to show our liability to incur enormous expense for the sake of our colonies. However right or wrong they may be, we must stand by them even in their local wars. The Colonial Government may say, "Let us alone and we will settle our own local difficulties," but they should also recollect that the Home Government cannot always allow such license, its own word and arrangements have some claim to be upheld, and in the present instance the local government was not in existence when the bargain was made; the arrangement was made direct with the Queen's representative, and the government of the natives has always been excluded from colonial control.

Again, at one period, when this country could send its convicts almost whithersoever it preferred, when our home manufacturers were highly favoured against foreign productions, when we had the monopoly of colonial shipping and carrying trade—selfishness might have induced us to retain our colonies with a pertinacity comparable to the vigour with which we had obtained them. But now, when they are placed upon the same basis as ourselves, in reference to trade; when perfect freedom exists in all or nearly all of our colonies; nay, when some of them are contemplating and even enacting protective duties against the home country, I must boldly say that our liabilities on their account are so great, that whenever any one of our colonies, or all, are disposed to separate from the mother country, and are no longer desirous of sheltering themselves under the parental roof, but, like grown up sons and daughters, are ambitious to settle for themselves, I should cheerfully assent, wishing them all success and God-speed.

#### SEPARATION FROM THE MOTHER COUNTRY.

This brings me to inquire whether the colonists themselves desire to withdraw from the government of the home country? I believe they all desire to retain their connection with the home country. However free and unbecoming may be the language of some of the colonies towards the home government, occasionally amounting almost to insolence, yet looking at the matter broadly and over a lengthened period, it must be unhesitatingly asserted that there is not at the present moment a single colony at all desirous of throwing off allegiance to the home country. Two or three reasons, out

of many which might be given for this satisfaction, may be named. First, for the most part the colonists have had large and liberal constitutions granted to them, whereby each colony is empowered to make its own laws, raise its revenue in the form most agreeable to itself, an act which it sometimes does very much to the prejudice of the home country—in fact, with few exceptions, to govern itself as independently as if it were a distinct nation. Not only so, but they possess the additional advantage of bearing but a comparatively small share of the cost of their own defence, and have the most powerful maritime nation in the world committed to their protection. And it is scarcely too much to assert that if the flag of England were hauled down and ceased to wave over our colonial possessions, the smaller ones would most certainly, and the larger ones very probably, soon fall a prey to less lenient control than the British. Again, consider the rate at which the several colonies borrow money for their local improvements. The direct monetary advantage of the guarantee of the home government is very considerable, or it would not be so eagerly sought. Even without that, a British colony comes into the money market with confidence, and secures loans on terms which most foreign countries would be extremely glad to obtain.

There is another matter, which the better class of colonists deem of great importance in a social point of view. If detached from the old country they would probably, almost necessarily, form republics, and have all the burning heats of violent political partisanship, presidential elections, &c., and take their whole tone of society from the narrow limits of a small population, the key-note of public feeling, sentiment, and manners being struck from the uneducated mass, working from below, if I may so speak, upwards. Quite apart from all questions of dependence and monetary and material advantages or disadvantages of a connection with the mother country, the best class of colonists value this connection for reasons which may be thus stated:—Nominated by her Majesty, who is too elevated by her position to have any other motive than the welfare of the colonial community, the authority of her appointed governor unembarrassed by local ties or influences, fresh to the colony, and generally a man of superior education and knowledge of the world, accompanied by an accomplished wife, a lady by manners and birth; the prestige of a bishop and clergy carrying to a greater or less extent profound respect for the learning of Oxford and Cambridge to the uttermost corners of the earth; the presence of military officers, the mild excitement of the inspection of the few troops stationed in most of the colonies, the periodical playing of the military bands, enlivening the otherwise dull business existence and softening the rude competition of the majority of the settlers—all these the colonists feel tend to raise the tone and give an old-home air to colonial society. Again, the visits of our men-of-war are always looked forward to with pleasure, even the solemn magisterial office regarding the escapades of Jack ashore with a very lenient eye; and the youngest and most mischievous midshipman who can display her Majesty's button may safely reckon upon finding a hearty welcome in every settler's home, whether the veriest log-hut or of palatial pretensions. Many military and naval officers form such associations and attachments in the colonies in which they may have been temporarily located that they eventually retire from active service and become settlers; and so much are they desired as colonists that special advantages are generally offered to settlers who may have belonged to her Majesty's service. Now, all must admit that the presence of a small court, if we may so term it, comprised of the elements we have named, is very advantageous to a colony; and I venture to assert that this class of advantages, more than the pecuniary benefits arising from the presence of government, induce those violent contests for the honour of being the capital, which we see exhibited in every colony. Witness the dispute as to whether Montreal, Toronto, or Ottawa should be the capital of

Canada, and the pertinacity with which the rival claims of Auckland, Wellington, Nelson, and Marlborough have been put forward for the honour of being the capital of New Zealand; the same may be said of Calcutta, which otherwise would certainly not long remain at the present day the capital of India.

#### CONFEDERATION.

I now venture to offer a few remarks on a subject which is becoming important, inasmuch as the results of the discussion now going on will affect, for good or evil, large territories of the globe, and millions of its inhabitants, of English blood, speaking our language, and retaining more or less the habits and love of the old country, and in whose destinies we cannot but feel a great interest. Colonies are first formed by a small settlement being made on the coast of some newly-discovered island or continent, and distance from the mother country necessitates the speedy establishment of a government, if such has not been previously arranged before the departure of the colonists. As the straggling colonists, with their innate love of wandering, proceed further and further from the primary settlement, often leaving large unoccupied gaps between the settled districts, it becomes advisable to have a second and a third focus of government, in order to bring these scattered populations under control. Hence boundaries, separate governors, legislatures, and revenue laws, applicable to the peculiar needs of each community. In process of time these communities, becoming more numerous, approach and touch each other, and that which formerly was a necessity for separate colonial legislation becomes incidentally followed by inconveniences. Local jurisdiction, difference of revenue duties, weaknesses from dissension, all occasion difficulties and disputes. From this cause, and more particularly from the threatening language of the government of the Federal States of North America, this question of the federation of colonies, has recently been revived. Time does not permit us to discuss this matter largely, but it may suffice to point out a few of the main principles which should guide the establishment of a federation.

1st. Equitable adjustment of taxation and duties, internal and external, for revenue purposes, that there may be no inducements to smuggling and fraud, and the expense of frontier custom-houses, watchmen, or coast-guards may be rendered unnecessary.

2nd. One system of monetary regulations, currency, coinage, and banking laws.

3rd. Uniform criminal and commercial laws.

4th. General application of loans for public works, and combined naval and military defences.

The disadvantages of confederation of this kind are to be found in the comparatively greater attention which would be given to general, rather than to the individual or local interests of the separate districts or provinces, and the subordination of the local governments to the central authority, the consequent diminished importance of the provincial councils and capitals, the swallowing up of the local in the central, and the want of recognition of those peculiar advantages, which each small colony believes itself in a position to offer to the intending settler. On the other hand the advantages are manifold. All border disputes about taxation and revenue would entirely cease. Is it not absurd, for instance, that goods imported into South Australia should pay one rate of duty, and through Victoria another, and that the running of customable goods across the border of adjoining colonies should be a source of profit to the unscrupulous, attended at the same time with great expense to the colony more highly taxing any given article, in order, by customs' stations on the frontier line, to protect its revenue. Again, unseemly quarrels about postal service, as between Victoria and New South Wales, would be avoided or overruled, as the general government would not be likely to have local preferences. As each district, from its



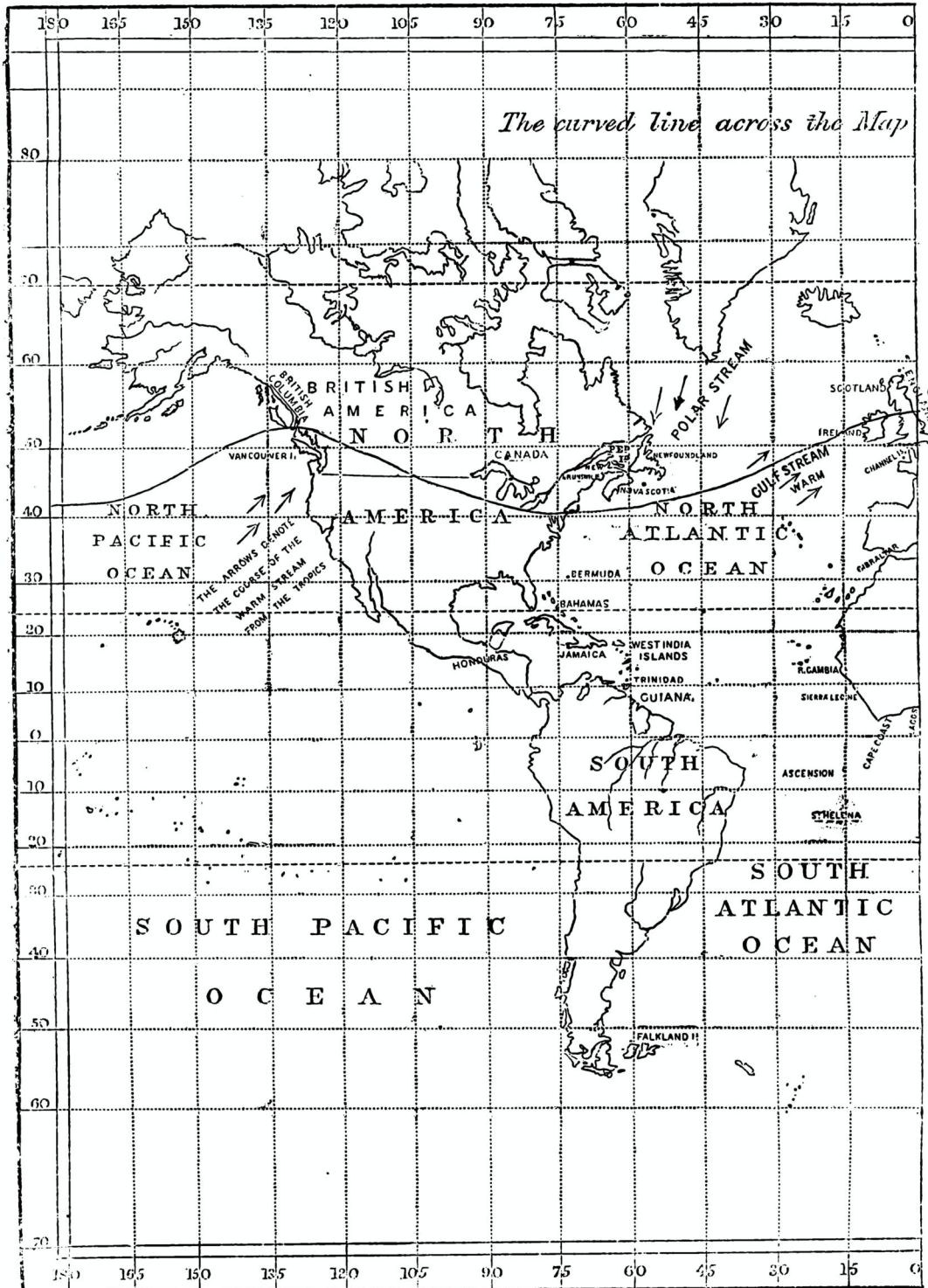
NAME OF COLONY OR DEPENDENCY.	Date of acquisition or settlement.	Mode of Acquisition or Settlement.	Area in square miles.	Total Population.	Public Debt.	Rate of Interest.	SHIPPING.				Import Value.	Export Value.	Special Trade.
							Entered.		Cleared.				
							Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.			
NEW ZEALAND	1840	Proclaimed a Colony	106,269	106,315	1,600,000	4 and 6	813	301,356	783	288,647	4,626,082	2,422,734	Wool.
QUEENSLAND	1859	Separated from N. S. Wales.	678,000	45,077	123,800	6	330	77,312	305	71,981	1,323,509	746,448	Wool.
HONG KONG	1841	Treaty with China	29	123,511	...	...	1,390	698,829	1,330	655,281	...	...	...
LABUAN	1846	{ Ceded by the Sultan of Brunei	45	3,345	...	...	17	4,875	17	5,299	42,774	13,122	Coal.
CEYLON	1795	Taken from the Dutch	24,700	2,219,507	...	...	2,788	447,481	2,791	441,511	4,243,140	2,494,120	Coffee.
MAURITIUS	1810	Captured from the French	708	322,517	...	...	663	274,255	679	284,388	2,438,412	2,517,288	Sugar.
NATAL	1843	{ Proclamation after sub- mission of the Boors	14,397	340,000	50,000	6	96	23,948	95	21,479	449,469	127,228	Sugar, Wool.
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE	1806	Taken from the Dutch	104,931	267,096	565,050	6	1,044	363,537	1,053	369,183	2,785,853	1,957,686	Wool, Wine.
ST. HELENA	1673	Taken from the Dutch	47	6,860	...	...	249	139,860	48	19,920	137,938	16,186	...
GOLD COAST.	1750	{ African Company Act of Parliament	6,000	400,000	...	...	87	20,877	87	20,877	162,970	145,819	...
SIERRA LEONE	1787	Ceded by Native Chiefs	468	41,860	...	...	373	43,362	386	45,662	144,269	268,815	...
GAMBIA	1588	{ Patent to a Company by Queen Elizabeth	20	6,939	...	...	176	40,788	182	38,897	99,825	154,443	Ground Nuts.
GIBRALTAR	1704	Taken by Sir G. Rooke	13	16,643	...	...	4,279	1,076,813	4,265	1,077,629	2,473,999	2,556,527	...
MALTA	1800	Surrendered by the French	115	143,970	161,551	2 and 2½	3,058	418,049	3,062	418,409	3,697,574	2,990,568	...
BRITISH KAFFRARIA	1860	{ Separated from Cape Colony. Cession, dependant upon	...	87,182	...	...	15	1,827	12	1,201	...	...	...
BULAMA	1792	{ Sierra Leone Royal Commission	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	250,000	239,720	...
LAGOS	1862	Captured from Denmark	...	2,172	...	...	...	...	...	...	77,933	61,932	...
HEBROLAND	1807	Dependencies of Mauritius	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
SEYDIBELLES and RODIGUES	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
HUDSON'S BAY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

geographical position, animal, vegetable, or mineral resources, necessarily varies in its peculiar requirements and the inducements it offers to emigrants, so it may be laid down that, subordinate to certain general principles and laws, which should include the fewest subjects possible, and be as clearly defined as practicable, the separate provinces or colonies should possess all the freedom of legislation and action compatible with the general good. It is evident that a fishing, a timber, a corn, and a sheep-farming colony may and must have very different modes of regarding the laws which should govern its taxation, its offers of land to emigrants, and the constituent elements of its general prosperity.

It would seem therefore that federation may more easily be longitudinal than latitudinal, climate having so much more influence on the welfare and social habits of human beings than at first sight we are apt to suppose. A tax upon wool, for instance, which would be oppressive at one extremity of a confederation, 1000 miles in length latitudinally, and almost unfelt at the other, might be an equally felt burthen in a confederation of 1000 miles length longitudinally. Whether this be a precisely correct view in every case or not, certain it is that, without permanent and close similarity of interest, confederation would be difficult, very probably not advisable. The excitement of a common danger is a very ephemeral bond; and the moment the fear of the threatened danger ceases, the chafing of the bond is inconveniently felt. In the last century the common cause of severing from England, united the several colonies of America, against the mother country; but the danger of the anticipated punishment for rebellion having ceased, the difference of internal interests is causing the most ferocious war on record.

The confederation of several colonies for purposes of defence in case of invasion is doubtless very desirable. Conquest is not the result of an invading force being able suddenly and momentarily to overrun a country, for however disastrous to the peaceful inhabitants such a visitation always is, this curse may be only temporary, and the marauding wave be eventually driven back. It is most important for security against such inroads, to check their progress if attempted, or to recover lost ground, that strong positions, either presented by natural advantages of situation, or arising from scientific constructions, should be judiciously selected, capable of offering stubborn resistance to the invader, and regarded as barriers or nuclei, behind and into which the militia, volunteers, and small military force of the mother country, to which every colony at the outbreak of war must necessarily be limited, may resort, and there make a resolute and permanent stand until their compatriots may have time to rally, and adequate assistance be rendered by the old country. In other cases these defences would probably consist of gunboats, dykes, moats, and canals, water impediments to the enemy. Plans of this kind can evidently be more advantageously and successfully carried out, the larger the population contributing such mutual assistance, and the greater the area for selection of good defence points. The rallying forts or entrenched camps would be comparatively fewer, but much stronger and more imposing to the invader than if each colony, island, or province had to rely upon itself unaided; and the naval and military combinations would be more effective and likely to secure the general result—the common defence. In this sense the union of several colonies is much to be encouraged. I do not at all agree with the idea that because Canada is not a desirable seat of war for England, therefore no attempt should be made at defence. Our being at a disadvantage there is a circumstance we cannot avoid, and must accept as we find. We should, of course, not select it as our field of battle, but when we know it is our weakest place, of which the enemy would be sure to avail himself, I read neither English history nor the national characteristics aright if I could believe for one moment that we would expose some three or four millions of our fellow subjects to the tender mercies of an army under such

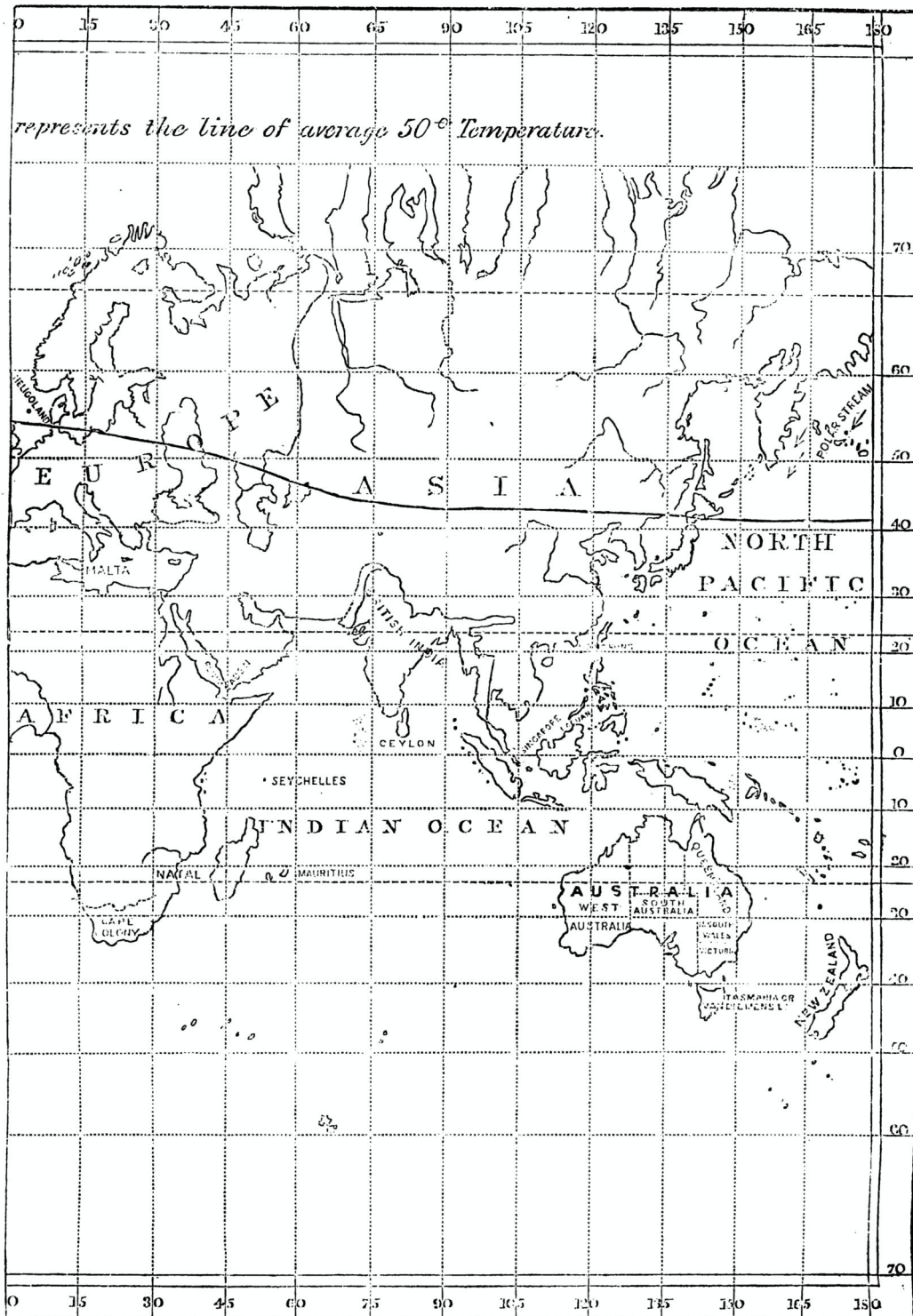
## SKETCH MAP, SHOWING THE COLONIES



It will be observed that the West Coasts of both Europe and North America are warmer than the East Coasts, and latitude of their position. The average temperature of London is about the same as that of Philadelphia, which



## AND DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.



also that the British Islands, British Columbia, and Vancouver's Island, are much warmer than is due to the mere is 14° further south; and the St. Lawrence, which is south of the Thames, is frozen over several months every year.

a man as Butler, without aiding them to make the best attempt at local resistance possible under the circumstances.

The question of colonial defence appears to be composed of three elements—mode of defence—expense—men. It would seem that the particular mode of defence in any given case must be left to the professional scientific advisers of the Crown and the colonies, with the understanding that the object is not for an English army or navy so much as for the local force. The expense of the permanent works in any given case should be borne by the colony, as it would be incurred for its special benefit, and the money would be spent among its population; but as any war to which the colonies might be exposed might be caused by imperial considerations, there would be little objection to the home government guaranteeing the interest. As the armament could be better provided, so that expense might be borne, by the home government, which would have control over its disposal and removal. Colonists should recollect that England is safe from attack; that we incur large expenses both of money and time on their behalf; money in taxes for the support of an army and navy principally employed in their defence, and time in large numbers of our people learning drill and the duties of soldiers, that we may allow our regular troops to be distributed all over the world. As to the men, no binding rule can be laid down; the number of the imperial forces must depend at all times upon its other needs; as a general principle the home force permanently located in any one colony could only be very small. Our colonies have been freed from control; their legislation is seldom advantageous, often adverse, to the mother country, and they must learn to bear the pecuniary burden of their own local defence.

#### CONCLUSION.

Upon the great empire which is presided over by our sovereign lady Queen Victoria, the sun ever shines; and as the morning gun boometh in a thousand ports, our pleasant red ensign floats out in the bright sunlight, greeted with a home thrill which only the emigrant exile can feel, for under its protection thought, speech, and action are free as the breathing wind which flutters through its wavy folds. At its sight ever the morning prayer or evening blessing wellet up in the hearts of English men and women, encircling the earth in one bond of union, freedom, and progress, for after the longest lapse of years, the look is still to Old England as their home. Shall the freedom we enjoy, and which, by our colonial empire, is spreading throughout the world, be curtailed and shorn of its proportions, or shall we, faithful to our high trust, diffuse throughout the world the liberty which our forefathers died to achieve, and with our privilege accept its responsibilities? We think our countrymen will give but one emphatic answer to the question; and while our colonial brothers desire to remain under the mild rule of our widowed Queen, they will ever find their English friends willing to stand with them shoulder to shoulder on their behalf, ready for quiet victory or silent death.

#### DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN, before inviting discussion on this interesting and important subject, would make a few observations upon the singularly valuable paper which they had just heard. Mr. Stones had observed that he had purposely abstained from saying anything about ancient colonization; but, from the very able character of the paper throughout, he (the Chairman) could have wished that subject had been treated of, because it was one of the most interesting in the world. All we have in taste, in art, in beauty, in poetry, and in philosophy, came from the Greek colonies, which had led to the foundation of Rome. This subject was peculiarly interesting to ourselves, inasmuch as it would seem to have been our mission to conquer the dusky nations of the east, and to people the lands of the fertile south with a race of hardy

islanders. He, therefore, quite agreed with the sentiments expressed by Mr. Stones with regard to emigration, of which it might truly be said that "it blesseth him that gives and him that takes." A farmer in Wiltshire had lately stated to him that he remembered the time when the labourer considered himself well paid with the price of a bushel of wheat for his wages; he was now paid the price of two bushels, thus showing the effects of emigration upon the welfare of those who remained at home. He quite agreed that emigrants should be men who could do hard work—professional men were not so much wanted. With regard to the supply of raw materials from our colonies, he could only say this—that in the late dearth of cotton he had searched the world through for supplies of that material. The magnificent empire of the Brazils; the south of China, containing the most industrious population in the world; the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates had together given us but little; but from our old dependency of India we had obtained about four-fifths of our recent supply. This showed how important an influence British rule exercised in promoting the supply of such raw materials as we required. He differed from the author of the paper in his idea that mechanical contrivances would have the effect of making labour cheaper. He saw before him an honourable friend (Mr. Bazley) who had a great deal to do with mechanical contrivances, and he was sure he would confirm the statement that the more mechanical contrivances thrived the more they tended to make labour dear. With machinery a man worked with the fingers of a giant, and was consequently better paid than if he did the work with his own hands, as the production was so much greater. In fact, mechanical contrivances ultimately tended to raise wages. With regard to the danger of foreign attacks upon our distant colonies, no doubt that danger was increased in proportion to the spread of civilization over the world. It was thus rendered necessary for the mother country to maintain enormous armaments and fleets for the protection of the interests of her colonies, but these also afforded us the means of making effective reprisals in case of an attack on any of our dependencies. If the French were to assail our West Indian colonies we could bombard Brest, or some other seaport, in return; therefore it was not probable they would do this, because the retribution would be greater than any injury they could inflict upon our distant colonies. There were in the paper some very striking remarks with respect to the extraordinary feeling of brotherhood produced by political and commercial connection. It would seem that in the present day, when the principles of free-trade prevailed, there would be no advantage in this political connection, but the contrary was the fact. Take for instance the Cape of Good Hope, which was perhaps rather an ill-favoured colony. We gave up Java and Sumatra to the Dutch and kept the Cape, and it was a remarkable fact that our exports to the Cape were now five times what they were to Java and Sumatra. No doubt if the political connection of this country with those islands had been maintained, the exports would have been much larger. Take again the instance of the Mauritius—a beautiful little island, not larger than the Isle of Wight. The exports from this country to that small colony were more than ten times as extensive as those to the great country of Mexico; three times as great as those to Moldavia and Wallachia; and twenty times as great as those to Persia. Then take India—the exports to that country were twenty millions annually, whereas to China, with a large population—more industrious though less frugal—the exports were only five millions. If we were in possession of China as we were of India, our exports to that country would probably amount to one hundred millions per annum. These were some of the leading advantages of our colonial possessions. The paper referred to another subject of importance—that was the granting of free institutions to our



colonies. He was afraid that in that we had been somewhat precipitate. It was done no doubt with the best intentions, but it had launched some of those infant communities into the wildest democracy the world had ever seen, and had given rise to forms of government which the most advanced liberal would tremble to see introduced into the old country. He agreed with what Mr. Stones had said on the subject of transportation. It was impossible, in the present state of society, to keep people immured in gaols for any very lengthened periods. Imprisonment for life, or even for ten or fifteen years, was unendurable to the worst of criminals, and transportation somewhere appeared to be desirable upon all considerations. He had seen the working of the system in the Australian colonies, and he could assure them that under the old plan, which was after all not particularly well carried out, the best results were produced. The Falkland Islands had been suggested as a locality for the transportation of criminals, and in that suggestion he concurred. It was a very windy place, where it was said "the hair was blown off one's head," but perhaps that was a climatic condition good enough for convicts. With regard to confederation, however desirable that might be, there were difficulties in the way of it, though not perhaps insuperable. We lived in times when we had seen the great American Confederation broken up; they never could be friends again, whatever happened; and this showed that in any confederation of the Canadas and other colonies there would be great difficulties. With regard to what had been said as to the cost of maintaining the naval protection of our colonies, they must remember that our navy required arsenals all over the world; and these must be furnished whether we had colonies or not. It must not be forgotten that our commerce every year amounted to nearly six hundred millions, including the carrying trade. The maintenance of our navy cost ten millions per annum, and if it were for nothing else than for the protection of our commerce on the seas this would be but a small per-centage upon the whole.

Professor LEONE LEVI said—Proud as this country might be in having given birth to so many communities, some of which had already become incipient empires, proud as she might be in possessing a territory so vast, a population so extensive, and resources so great as had been so vividly described this evening, there were causes in operation which were likely to lessen materially the need of possessing such colonies, and which would render the possible separation of any of them a matter of much less solicitude than would have been imagined some years ago. What were the principal benefits supposed to be derived from the colonial system? Practically three only: a large field for emigration; an extension of trade, with facilities for the investment of capital; and political strength and influence. Much was said of the field afforded by colonies for emigration. He could well conceive that in times gone by, when countries knew each other only by their armed forces, when there was no protection beyond what could be obtained by the national flag and national power, it became necessary for our redundant population to found colonies where they might establish themselves in safety. When war was the normal state of international relations no one could risk himself in the dominions of other countries. But the times were now, happily, quite changed in this respect. Now that peace was the rule and war only the exception; now that international law and public law reign supreme everywhere, there was no longer the necessity of seeking the shield of British protection within the national territory. Our emigrants were, in fact, but little affected by such national considerations. Take the emigrants for 1862 to the United States and British North America. One was foreign, the other British. Yet 59,000 went to the one and only 15,000 to the other. No doubt a common language, common laws, common manners, would always

be important considerations for an emigrant in the choice of a country, but even those elements were now greatly modified by the constant merging of nationalities, by the greater assimilation of manners, the better knowledge of languages, and the greater charity which obtained everywhere for the foreigner. Secondly, as to commerce it was admitted that a third of our entire trade was now carried on with the colonies, and that more than half of the entire trade of the colonies was carried on with the United Kingdom. This showed that as the colonies were of great importance to the United Kingdom, so the United Kingdom was of the greatest importance to the colonies, but that did not depend on the present relation of the colonies to the mother country. It only evidenced, on the one hand, the capacity of these territories to produce articles of great and universal value, and on the other, the capacity of the United Kingdom, as the largest market of the world, to attract such produce to its shores. In the present state of our colonial legislation the colonies were no longer bound to send their produce to this country. They sent it because they got here the highest price for it. They sent it because they were sure of a market. They sent it because they were greatly indebted to this country for the manufactures they purchased and for the capital Britain invested in them. He admitted the fact that such colonies were of great value to our trade, that they supplied us with articles absolutely necessary for our consumption and for our manufactures, that they consumed a large amount of British goods, greater of course than other communities; but he doubted whether this was because they were our colonies. It was simply because they followed the natural laws of trade. As for the investment of capital, he had yet to learn what guarantees were afforded in any of our colonies greater than were obtainable in other countries. The advantage they possessed was that they had virgin soil to work upon and infant communities offering the most brilliant prospects of increase. But that resulted from circumstances natural to the territories themselves, their soil, their climate, and their power of production. The third prominent advantage which colonies seemed to confer was strength. But, ignorant as he was of the art of war, he certainly scarcely thought that, in a strategic point of view, our colonies were not of any great value, at least the greater number of them. They were rather calculated to scatter our forces, to divert our attention, and to weaken our power of offence and defence on the high seas, where, after all, the great conflict of nations was decided. He would not enlarge on this point, since persons of greater practical knowledge might be ready to disprove any such consideration. Yet it was a question of importance to consider whether our colonies were really imparting strength to the empire or not. Time, indeed, was when the extension of territory was considered a primary condition of political influence, but we know now that the larger the territory the more difficult it was to govern. Look at Russia, how hard it was for the central government effectually to rule the extremities. And what did we experience ourselves? Could we govern India from this country? Could we govern Australia? It would be morally impossible. Most of our colonies were, in fact, self-governed; in some all authority was left in the hands of the governor, legislating alone or with a consultative council; in some the power was in the hands of the legislative council, partly nominated and partly elected; and in other cases the authority was entrusted to an elective council and an elective assembly; but in each case very little power was vested either in the Secretary of State or in the Queen herself. There was, no doubt, much glory in the name of possessing countries so great, but as to any attempt to direct the government of them, it must be renounced altogether. If, therefore, no great practical advantages arose from the present bond of colonial relationship, we might be quite sure that the time would soon come when questions of separation would force themselves on our attention, whether they were pro-

voked by the colonies themselves, or by thoughts of rigid economy, or otherwise. An evidence of the altered state of public opinion on this subject was given in the cession of the Ionian Islands. Some twenty years ago it would have appeared sheer madness to have parted with such colonies in an important position in the Mediterranean. Now they were abandoned without a sigh. It would, perhaps, be said that this was only another manifestation of the grovelling spirit of the age, but, in truth, it was the result of a great change in the prevailing opinion as to the real sources of national strength and prosperity. What would further facilitate this impending separation, would be the confederations now negotiated. It would never be possible to abandon these infant communities to themselves so long as they were isolated, but let them associate themselves into great federations, and they would be able to stand their ground, and to place themselves firmly under the protection of public and international law. What we should do was to render these federations as complete as possible; and he was glad to find in Mr. Stones' paper some valuable suggestions in this respect. What they certainly should aim at was an equitable adjustment of taxation and duties founded on the dictates of economic science. It was a disgrace that any of them should resort to protective export duties after the mother country had taught them better things. If any country should be able to experiment on the working of a complete free-trade system, it should be our colonies with their small expenditure and their thriving population. They certainly should have one system of monetary regulations, currency, coinage, and banking laws, and they should have a uniform criminal and commercial law. We were lamenting the differences between the laws of Scotland and England. But what were these differences to those arising from a completely different system, some colonies having Dutch, some French, and some Spanish laws, setting aside India with its Hindoo, Mahometan, and Parsee laws. These were practical difficulties which we should endeavour to remove. It certainly appeared that some of our colonies, such as Canada and Australia, had reached the state of manhood; and it depended very much on themselves to determine what kind of relation they would continue to hold with the mother country. Britain had certainly fostered them in their infancy, and watched their growth with all the solicitude of a parent, and should they now desire to part, it would become her duty to regard them, not with jealousy, but with sympathy, and to act towards them, if not with patronage and fatherly interest, at least with brotherly affection and brotherly encouragement.

Mr. TORRENS said, while he agreed with all that had been said in the paper with regard to the advantages derived by the mother country and by the colonies from mutual connection and from emigration, he entirely dissented from what had been said with respect to the counter-balancing disadvantages of that connection. He had the best opportunities of forming sound opinions on this subject, having early in life emigrated to a new country, now highly prosperous. He referred to South Australia, where he had filled the office of Commissioner of Trade and Customs. He joined issue with the author of the paper on the statement that our colonies were exhaustive to the mother country in men and money. On that point he thought the paper answered itself, because, in the early part of it, Mr. Stones dwelt appropriately upon the great increase of the wealth of the mother country, occasioned by the demand for her productions by her sons transplanted into countries where they were more adequately rewarded for their labour. By that means they were enabled to consume a larger amount of British manufactures than if they had remained at home. It would be found that in the Australian colonies the average consumption of British manufactures throughout the entire population was £8 per head per annum. They knew that no labourer in this country consumed anything like that; but by sending a portion of the

surplus labour of the country to our colonies they enabled a larger population to subsist at home. Thus he maintained that colonization was not exhaustive to the mother country in men; far less was it exhaustive in money. If they looked around them in this great city they found those who had acquired wealth in the colonies spending that wealth in this city, besides which, there was the increased wealth derived by this country from the demand for our manufactures by the populations of the colonies. The next point alluded to as being regarded as a drawback was the cost of protecting the colonies, and that whilst that expense fell upon the mother country the colonists, in some cases, were at liberty to impose protective duties, so as to exclude the manufactures of the mother country. That was a state of things that ought not to exist; but while it did exist to some extent, it was well to inquire how it had arisen, and whether there was any necessity for its continuance. The mother country had hitherto generously and gratuitously afforded naval and military protection to her colonies, but they did not in many cases require it; and it was contrary to common sense that they should be exempt from the taxation which was borne by the people at home for this object. He maintained that this state of things had in some cases arisen from the neglect of the mother country to make proper demands on her colonies in this respect, which would not have been resisted if made. It had been stated by Sir Henry Young that he sent home a despatch to the Secretary of State proposing that the colony over which he was placed should pay half the cost of the military protection, but to that despatch he never received any answer. In South Australia, whence he (Mr. Torrens) had recently come, they maintained a large volunteer corps; and in Victoria a vote of £20,000 had been passed for the supply of heavy artillery for that colony. He did not hesitate to say that the great majority of the colonies were prepared to take their fair share of these burdens upon themselves. With regard to protective duties against British manufactures, he thought that when constitutions were granted to them they ought to have been prohibited from imposing duties which had the effect of excluding the goods of the mother country from their markets. He believed the true remedy for this objectionable feature would be found—not in separation or federation—but in a closer union with the mother country. If, instead of treating the colonies as foreign states, we treated them as integral parts of the kingdom, the result would be different, and the productions of each country would be admitted to each without duty, to the mutual benefit of both; and under such a reciprocity the colonies might be fairly called upon to contribute to the support of the naval and military defence of the common country. If this were the case, however, the colonies might then lay claim to be represented in the British Parliament—not to the whole extent of their numbers, but in such a manner as that facts relating to the colonies might be laid before the House from a colonists' point of view. He believed that system to be a practical one, and that thus instead of the colonies being a source of weakness and exhaustion to the mother country, they would become her greatest strength and support.

Mr. J. CRAWFORD said they had listened for an hour to Mr. Stones' paper, and he thought they all felt that hour was too short, so interesting had they found it. It had never been his lot to listen to a more comprehensive "state" paper; it might be regarded as the production of a true statesman, and he was most heartily obliged to Mr. Stones for it. There were, however, a few points in which he differed from him. He had said that most of our raw materials—even cotton—were derived from our colonies. His friend, Mr. Bazley, knew very well that cotton had not been brought to any great extent from our colonies. Our great supply of that article had been derived from a country which certainly ninety years ago was a colony of this empire, but which since that time had

become a cotton-producing country. We had been receiving some inferior qualities of cotton from India; but when peace was restored in America this product would come from that country as before, because no spot in the world appeared to equal the Southern States of America for the production of a high quality of cotton. He had no objection to make with regard to wool. Our colonies certainly did furnish us with enormous quantities of wool, and the prosperity of this country greatly depended upon that product. He thought, in the statement made by Mr. Stones, in which he attributed the rise of 20 per cent. in the wages of labour in this country to emigration, sufficient allowance had not been made for the large importations of gold from our own colonies. This enormous influx of gold had been going on for the last sixteen or seventeen years, and thus, in fact, our capital had been largely increased, giving employment to so many new hands, and constituting an additional demand for labour. Therefore, to the introduction of gold he principally attributed the rise of wages to which Mr. Stones had referred. With respect to confederation, he pretty nearly agreed with Mr. Stones on that subject. He did not see that any particular advantages would result from it to the colonies themselves, except, perhaps, in the case of the Canadas. He did not believe they would ever get Australia or New Zealand to form a confederation, inasmuch as danger from a foreign enemy was of the very remotest kind as regarded those colonies. They were able to defend themselves without soldiers, with the assistance of the British navy. The only great maritime powers who could attack them were France or America, and neither country had a navy equal to our own. With the Canadas, however, the case was different, with its 1,200 miles of frontier, which it was impossible to defend; with Montreal not more than 50 or 60 miles from that frontier, quite indefensible. He did not see what advantages New Brunswick or Newfoundland could derive from a confederation with the Canadas. He would say generally when any colony desired to part from us, the sooner we got rid of it the better. The Canadas were no great advantage to us; but we were bound in honour to defend them so long as they looked to us to do so. He did not, however, think we could defend them with success against the powerful nation that was on their frontier, who, with a large disciplined army, might at any time invade Canada; but, in his opinion, they would not do so because it could only be done at the cost of a vast sum of money; and the interest on their national debt already exceeded our own. Moreover, if they went to war with us, every port they possessed would be blockaded by our ships. He had, in conclusion, a very few words to say in reply to the observations of the chairman with respect to the ancient colonies. They were, after all, but very small matters. Every country that possessed a few boats—and the Greek vessels were little better—every country that possessed islands was pretty certain to engage in maritime enterprise, and the Greeks had an extraordinary enterprise for so small a people; for their whole number did not exceed the population of Australia and New Zealand at this moment. But for the discovery of America there would have been but little land for colonization, and previous to this discovery certain other discoveries were made: paper, printing, the polarity of the magnet, and gunpowder. Then it was that a great amount of maritime enterprise was manifested. In ancient times it was true that the Greeks planted themselves among barbarous nations, but there was little scope for colonization in the old world, while the new world afforded an almost unlimited field; and as soon as European enterprise was ripe for the work the foundation was laid of the vast colonies now owning British rule.

Mr. THOS. BAZLEY, M.P., fully concurred in the general impression as to the very able character of the paper; it contained much of enlightened policy; at the same time he thought that the author had in one or two places spoken hardly of the people of the United States, and of

some of the leaders of the armies of the North. In this respect he begged to express the strongest dissent from him. Nor could he let pass, without a slight criticism, the remark which had fallen from his hon. friend in the chair, to the effect that the re-confederation of the States of America could not be looked for, and that it would be impossible to restore harmony between those States. He (Mr. Bazley) thought, seeing that victory had given to the North something like a restitution of territory, there was no occasion for that remark to have been made on this occasion, while we were uttering expressions of sympathy for the loss which the States had experienced through the murder of their President. The South had rebelled against the North; and the South had no moral claim to the sympathy of this great and free country, owing to the institution of slavery. The negro had been debased, but he was now receiving something like vindication in the punishment which was being inflicted upon the slave owners of the Southern States. We had given freedom to the slaves in the British West India Islands, and they were more productive under the state of freedom than they had been under the system of slavery. Touching the question of protection, there was the evidence of what we did for the West India Islands. When they were under the system of slavery we paid (owing to protective duties) an excess of price for sugar imported into this country exceeding the whole amount of manufactures we sent there. We then squandered £4,000,000 per annum in the form of protection to our West India Islands. As to the connection of this country with the colonies, he thought that so long as they could maintain that connection with us, by all means let them do so. They had our customs, language, and laws; he hoped also they had our common sympathies, and that they would feel it to be to their interest to remain in connection with us; but he was quite sure not a moment longer than they deemed it to their own interest would they hold to this connection, therefore we need not be under any great anxiety as to retaining them. As to the quantity of raw cotton supplied by the British possessions for the great trade of this country, he would only say, that in the year 1860, the last year in which the cotton manufacture of this country was working to the full extent of its power, 85 per cent. of the cotton used in this country was supplied by the States of America, 8 per cent. by Egypt, and 7 per cent. from British East and West India; and, he need not add, that the worst quality of all came from the East Indies. The high price of cotton in this country had had the effect of stimulating a supply from our dependencies; but the maximum quantity we had received from the East Indies during the cotton famine had been about one million of bags in the year. In 1860, the consumption of the cotton trade of the country was equal to 2½ millions of bags; therefore, instead of a large per centage of the consumption coming from India under the most favourable circumstances, we had had only as 1 million to 2½ millions. But about the time the American convulsion occurred, the quantity of cotton did not indicate the quantity which the machinery provided was capable of consuming; and he believed the augmentation of machinery in the large establishments would have led to a consumption of three millions of bags if it could have been supplied. Thus the maximum supply from the East Indies of inferior cotton had been equal to only one-third of the consumption; but the inferiority of that cotton was such that the moment we could obtain an increased amount of American, that moment would East Indian cotton cease to be used. Under these circumstances, there was no doubt that, unless the resources of the British colonies were developed so as to compete with the independent states of America and Egypt, we could not obtain large supplies of cotton from our possessions abroad. Nothing could be better than the wool of Australia, and without it he did not hesitate to say a large portion of the woollen trade could not exist in the West of England

or in Yorkshire. He wished to record the fact that Australia could supply cotton equal to any produced in the world. Whether it would be to the interest of Queensland, Victoria, or the other colonies of Australia, to supply it he was not prepared to say; but it was certainly one of the resources of our colonial empire yet to be developed. He thought our colonies must not continue to depend upon the naval and military establishments of the mother country for the continuance of the connection with them. It might be very agreeable to them to see the parade of military life mingling with every-day business in the colonies, but all this had hitherto been done at the cost of the people of England; and the time had arrived when the colonies must not only look to self support, but also to self-defence.

Mr. FREDERICK HILL would only say a word or two on the important question of transportation. More than 200 years ago Bacon declared that it was a bad and an unholy thing to plant wicked men in distant climates, there to multiply in their depravity; and as far as his personal experience went, the information he had collected went to show this principle was correct. The colonies most interested in the question had in the most emphatic manner denounced transportation to their territories; therefore we must consider the question virtually settled, so far as existing colonies were concerned. He would call attention to the circumstance that, while on most branches of the subject Mr. Stones had presented them with an interesting array of facts, yet, on the subject of transportation he had only theorised. It had been incidentally stated that the substitution of lengthened terms of imprisonment for the punishment of transportation had been a failure. Everyone who knew what had been done in Ireland must admit it was a most eminent success. The result of most careful inquiry showed that the system in this country had only fallen into disrepute from the miserable manner in which it was administered. The system of lengthened imprisonment, which it was argued was impossible without producing madness, or other evils, had existed, and did exist still, in Germany and Switzerland without those evils arising. It was no part of a proper system of imprisonment to confine a fellow-creature within four narrow walls year after year. That was only the preliminary part of the punishment, but afterwards they were treated in a different way, and under good arrangements, there was no difficulty in making the criminals support themselves, and thus disposing of them without injury to ourselves or to any distant country. Mr. Stones had recommended the Falkland Islands as the *locale* for a future experiment in this direction. The locality most resembling that was Norfolk Island, and the depravity that existed there when it was an island full of convicts, and entirely without the element of free labour, was so fearful, that one shuddered at the contemplation of a repetition of such a state of things. He therefore sincerely hoped that no such experiment would be tried.

The CHAIRMAN said it was his pleasing duty to propose that the cordial thanks of the meeting be given to Mr. Stones, for what they must all regard as an unusually able paper. With reference to the remark that had fallen from Mr. Crawford, that our trade with the colonies ought to be of the character of a coasting trade, he might say that practically this was so. With only rare exceptions, there was nothing charged with duty coming from the colonies, which was not also liable to excise in this country. There was, in fact, the most perfect free trade. Whilst there was an import duty on coffee, which was a foreign produce, there was a duty also on chicory, which was of home growth. There was a duty on rum from the West Indies, but the same duty was charged on spirits manufactured in this country. The great superiority of the American cotton was to be attributed to three elements—the fine alluvial tracts of the Southern territories, European enterprise, and African muscle. Those, when combined, produced the wonderful

result of excellent cotton at 6d. to 8d. per lb. With regard to Australian cotton, he was afraid it was hopeless to think of it. He was satisfied that at the present price of labour there, cotton could not be produced under 5s. per lb. [Mr. BAZLEY assured the chairman he was mistaken. He had grown cotton in Australia, and knew differently.] With regard to transportation, he would say the Falkland Islands presented a much larger area than Norfolk Island, and under the system recommended by Mr. Stones they would be acting upon the old plan of convict colonisation. He did not despair of something being done in these islands.

The vote of thanks to Mr. Stones was then passed and acknowledged.

#### DUBLIN INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

This Exhibition will be formally opened by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, on Tuesday next, the 9th inst., at two o'clock. The doors will be opened at eleven o'clock and closed at half-past one. The general arrangements throughout the building are rapidly progressing, and no fear need be entertained of the preparations for the opening not being complete in time.

#### WEST LONDON INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION.

On Monday, the 1st inst., this exhibition was formally inaugurated in the Floral Hall, Covent Garden, by the Right Hon. W. F. COWPER, Chief Commissioner of Public Works, who took the chair at three p.m., being supported on the platform by the Archbishop of York; Mr. J. A. NICHOLAY, president of the committee; Sir J. V. Shelley, Bart, M.P.; Sir James Hamilton; Hon. F. BYNG; Harvey Lewis, Esq., M.P.; Peter Graham, Esq.; Sir Thomas Henry; and others. Letters had been received from the Earl of Derby, Lord Stanley, and Mr. Gladstone, regretting that they could not attend.

The National Anthem and the 100th Psalm were then sung, and the Archbishop offered up a prayer appropriate to the occasion. The "Hallelujah Chorus" was then sung, after which Mr. Edmund Phelps delivered the ode written for the occasion by G. Linnæus Banks, Esq., entitled "Labour's Festival." Haydn's "The Heavens are telling" was then performed by the chorus; and

The CHAIRMAN delivered an address, in the course of which he said there was one point which made the present exhibition important. In it we were brought face to face with the man who did the work, and he earned his just meed of praise. There was in these days so much power in combined action, that there was some risk of the cause of individualism being overlooked. A skilful artisan, who had done good service to the firm employing him, often had reason to complain that his merits remained unknown, and, while his employers had the credit, the individual could not show what he was able to do. The hon. chairman went on to speak favourably of some of the objects in the exhibition. He then declared the exhibition open.

Sir JOHN SHELLEY, M.P., proposed a vote of thanks to the chairman, which was seconded by Mr. HARVEY LEWIS, M.P., put by Mr. J. A. NICHOLAY, and carried by acclamation.

Sir JAMES HAMILTON moved a vote of thanks to the President and the Working Committee, which was seconded by the Hon. F. BYNG, and passed unanimously.

Mr. MORRELL briefly replied, and the Coronation Anthem—"Zadok, the Priest,"—was sung, and an inaugural march was played.

Space has been granted for 1,087 exhibitors, representing almost every branch of industry, from the profession of sculptor and artist to the humble calling of the costermonger, and by far the larger portion of the exhibition consists of amateur contributions.

Amongst the articles exhibited are many which were shown in the Exhibition of 1862, at the Society of Arts, at the coachmakers' exhibition this year, and at the recent district exhibitions; but the majority are articles manufactured strictly within the locality contemplated by the undertaking, and which are now for the first time brought under the eye of the public.

A certificate has been obtained from the Privy Council entitling exhibitors to the protection afforded by the Industrial Exhibitions Act, passed this session.

### WORKING MEN'S FLOWER SHOWS.

Following out the laudable endeavours of the Royal Horticultural Society at South Kensington to promote the cultivation of flower-growing in what has been aptly styled "window gardens," a few of the inhabitants of Bayswater called a public meeting on Friday evening April 28th, to devise means for carrying out the Society's views among the working classes resident in the parishes of Paddington and Kensington. These parishes are, of course, divided into districts, and in some of these districts—far removed from human ken, so far as the stranger is concerned—resides a large number of the "sons of labour," consisting chiefly of men engaged in the mass of building operations going on all around the "royal" parish of Kensington. Opposite Palace-gardens, turning down a wretched-looking court, you find yourself *vis-à-vis* with squalid poverty in the notorious Jennings'-buildings—a "rookery" which is a foul blot upon the parish. Although at first one may be led to doubt if the inhabitants of these dismal hovels can ever be led to attempt window-gardening, if we think what has been done by the parish of Bloomsbury (in which is situated the notorious St. Giles's), we shall not find cause for despair. The question of its accomplishment is the thing to be considered. That it is fraught with difficulties we know, but when we consider the advantages accruing to the lower classes by inducing a love for flowers and a desire to cultivate them, the difficulties are in comparison trifling. A man who is fond of his garden is fond of his wife and children; a woman who tends her flowers with care is a woman of cleanly habits, and her room will be found tidy; she trains her children as she trains her flowers, with care and attention. Is it not, then, worth our while to make an effort to create and encourage window and house gardening among the poor. Socially and morally will they be benefited, and their improvement is not only their but our advantage. The audience at the meeting consisted principally of youths, members of the West London Youths' Institute, in the lecture-hall of which building the meeting was held. They were addressed by Mr. Bosanquet, who, in conjunction with the Rev. S. Hadden Parkes, has done so much to teach the working classes the science of home floriculture. Mr. Bosanquet gave a practical lesson in window gardening, and he was listened to with profound attention. He clearly showed the ease and the readiness with which geraniums, fuchsias, and annuals can be grown on window sills in any part of London. Mr. Broome, of the Temple-gardens, also gave some good practical hints, none of which were thrown away on his listeners. The advice given by one speaker (Mr. Sharp) is worth recording, as other gentlemen who may feel an interest in this movement may circulate it in their own parishes. He says, leave the matter to be worked out by the City missionaries and district visitors in each parish. They know the people; they have influence over them, and will be listened to. If this plan be followed out we believe the movement will be a successful one. Let but two or three families in a district show the first bright streaks of a newly-grown flower at their windows, and it will stimulate a desire among their neighbours to compete for the prizes to be given by the Royal Horticultural Society in

July next, and thus lay the foundation for a Working Man's Annual Flower Show. M. S. M.

### Fine Arts.

FLANDRIN EXHIBITION.—The collective exhibition of the pictures of the late Hippolyte Flandrin, in the new gallery of the Ecole des Beaux-Arts in Paris, has recently closed. It has attracted a very large number of visitors, and, on the whole, may be said to have proved a success. The fact of a large portion of the works being merely the sketches—in some cases, it is true, highly-finished drawings—instead of the works themselves, which are on the walls of the churches of Paris and other towns, dwarfed the collection as a whole, and the large works, such as the "Dante, conducted by Virgil, offering Consolation to the Shades of the Envious," "Euripides writing his Tragedies," "Saint Clair," "Jesus and the Children," were not of a sufficiently brilliant character to fill the void occasioned by the above circumstances. Of the sketches for the innumerable works executed by this artist, including those for the churches of Saint Séverin, Saint Vincent de Paul, and Saint Germain des Prés, in Paris, and Saint Paul, at Nîmes, it is impossible to speak too highly with respect to drawing and industry; but, unfortunately, the composition is generally bald, even for mural painting, the attitudes wanting in originality, the colours flat, and the expression of the faces generally conventional, and wanting in enthusiasm. Passing, however, from the highest walks of the art to that in which Flandrin was, after all, most at home, the portraits deservedly draw forth a large amount of admiration. It is true that the charm of colour is almost entirely wanting. As Ary Scheffer performed strokes of genius in hues of dead leaves, so Flandrin has done miracles with black and plainness; he rarely succeeded in making a face pleasing, never in making one lovely, but the fidelity and life-like character of his portraits are marvellous. Amongst the pictures from the life, that of the present Emperor Napoleon III. is beyond question one of the most striking. The portrait of Prince Napoleon looked sombre beside its glaring companions—the likeness of Louis Napoleon and another of Napoleon I.—but its qualities are sound and real, and it is one of the works on which Flandrin's fame will rest. There is also a likeness of Baron James Rothschild, which is admirable in almost all respects. The gem of the collection, however, is the famous "Young Girl with the Pink," which created such a sensation in 1859, a likeness of Mademoiselle Maison, now La Baronne de Mackau. The face is an exquisite specimen of solid, vigorous, highly-finished work; the pose is perfectly natural, the dress is truth itself—there is nothing wanting but that indefinite charm which cannot be explained, but the absence of which leaves a vacuum that nothing can fill.

MONUMENT TO RAPHAEL.—The eldest son of Victor Emmanuel has performed a graceful act in accepting the honorary presidency of a committee formed for the purpose of erecting a monument in honour of this great artist in the city of his birth, Urbino, and the acceptance is announced in a note, in which General Revel says for Prince Humbert:—"To perpetuate the memory of men who, like the illustrious painter, have exhibited their genius in such brilliant colours, is a most praiseworthy act, and his Royal Highness could not fail to associate himself with such a generous and patriotic intention."

### Manufactures.

ANILINE DYES.—The colouring matters produced from aniline and analogous matters are all, with the exception

of the Fuchsine and Perkins's violet, insoluble in water, and many attempts have been made to substitute a less costly solvent for the alcohol hitherto employed. M. Gaultier de Claubry, a French chemist, has recently taken out a patent for a method of accomplishing this. He says that a great number of substances, such as gum, mucilage, almond and other soap, glucose, dextrine, the gelatinous portion of various feculæ, of lichens, and of fuel, render water a solvent of such colouring matter, but that the best and most economical results are to be obtained by means of decoctions of the bark known as Panama (*Quillaia saponaria*), or of the root of the Egyptian soap plant (*Gypsophila struthium*). The *Saponaria officinalis*, he adds, may be employed, but is less energetic in its action than the other two. The solutions are obtained by pouring the boiling liquors upon the colouring matter in powder, agitating, decanting, and, if the solution be not complete, repeating the process. The solutions thus obtained may be reduced to extracts by evaporation, but continued ebullition, especially if the water contain sulphate or carbonate of lime, may injure the colours. A better method, according to M. Gaultier de Claubry, is to triturate the powdered colouring matter with the extract of *Gypsophila struthium*, and then afterwards to add water by degrees, but, as the reds dissolve more readily than the blues, it is necessary afterwards to mix all the products together. The solutions obtained by means of the extracts above named are said to work readily with gum, dextrine, and albumen, separately or combined. The advantages claimed for the process by the patentee are economy, perfect unity of tints, which will not soil linen by contact, and suppression of inconvenience caused to the dyers by the use of alcohol or wood spirit. In connection with the latter it should be mentioned that the attempt to substitute it for alcohol has been defeated by the workmen, who have, in many instances, refused to use it on account of its effect on their health.

**VEGETABLE FLANNEL.**—A correspondent of the *Athenæum* writes:—Those of your readers who take an interest in the manufacture of vegetable flannel from the *Pinus silvestris* may like to have the additional information that since 1860 there are two establishments near Breslau, in one of which pine leaves are converted into wool, while in the other, for invalids, the waters used in the manufacture of pine wool are used as curative agents. The process for converting the pine needles into wool was discovered by Mr. Pannewitz. In the hospitals, penitentiaries, and barracks of Vienna and Breslau blankets made from that material are now exclusively used. One of their chief advantages is that no vermin will lodge in them. The material is also used as stuffing, closely resembles horse-hair, and is only one-third its cost. When spun and woven, the thread resembles that of hemp, and is made into jackets, spencers, drawers, and stockings, flannel and twill for shirts, coverlets, body and chest warmers, and knitting yarn. They keep the body warm without heating, and are very durable. The factories are lighted with gas made from the refuse of the above manufacture.

## Commerce.

**LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER.**—The total copper product of Lake Superior in 1864, as per tables published in the *Mining Gazette and Miner*, is 8,561,999 tons, producing about 6,850 tons of ingot copper worth 6,850,000 dolars, and from each district as follows:—Keweenaw District, 2,548 tons 808 lbs. shipped; Portage Lake District, 4,292 tons 1,691 lbs. produced; Ontonagon District, 1,722 tons 500 lbs. shipped; total, 8,561 tons 999 lbs. This amount would have been from 1,500 to 2,000 tons larger had it not been for a great falling off in the products of the Minnesota—the scarcity of labour in some of the districts, and its employment largely in opening new mines.

**AMERICAN WHALE FISHERY.**—The year 1864 has witnessed a further decline in the number of vessels employed in this business, and the number now thus employed is less than at any time within the last 25 years, being 276, with an aggregate of 79,692 tons. The greatest number within the above-named period employed in the whaling business was in 1846, which was 735, amounting to 233,189 tons. The present number of vessels, however, is as large as the business will warrant.

## Colonies.

**NEW SOUTH WALES FINANCE.**—It appears that the actual deficit for the year 1863 and previous years amounted to £389,822 1s. 10d., and to meet this the Government issued Treasury bills to the amount of £400,000. The deficit for the year 1864 may be estimated at £400,000, and is accounted for as follows:—Decline in the customs, £60,000; decline in land revenue, £102,000; taxation scheme not passed, £220,000; total, £382,000. The statistics of the Mint for 1863 show that the operations for the year consisted in the reception and re-issue of 493,332 ounces of gold of the value of £1,908,526. Four-fifths of this gold was the produce of the colony, but some came from Victoria, some from New Zealand, and some from Queensland. The value of the coin issued was £1,534,750. The gold issued as bullion was only valued at £342,212. This shows that by far the greater portion of the gold sent to the Mint is redemanded in the shape of coin, and that the demand for merely assayed bullion is small. This may be due partly to the fact that the charge for coinage and for assaying is the same, but perhaps mainly to the fact that the gold is shipped for India, and that it is more available there as coin than as bullion. The Mint revenue for the year was £23,602, of which £18,555 was due to the gold of the colony. The amount of coin and bullion in the colony at the close of the year was not more than £1,024,049, of which £962,426 was coin in the several banks. The amount of paper money in circulation at the end of the year was £824,347, or rather less than the value of the coin held.

**THE NEW ZEALAND** postal contract with the Panama, New Zealand, and Australian Royal Mail Company has been ratified by the New Zealand government modifications. The subsidy, it appears, is to be £90,000, or, if a speed of 10 knots be adopted, £110,000.

**LABOUR IN QUEENSLAND.**—The working classes have held a meeting on the subject of carrying out the eight hours system, which (as stated by the colonial journals) has been found to work satisfactorily in other colonies. There are few persons in the colony who do not approve of the movement, as, from the trying nature of the climate, it is physically impossible that any man can work for more than eight hours with credit to himself or with justice to his employer. The arrangement is one which rests almost entirely with the working classes to carry out, and, as they have before them the encouragement of success in other colonies, there is no doubt that they will obtain a public recognition of the desirability of enforcing the eight-hour system.

**GOLD IN QUEENSLAND.**—The northern diggers are sending down large quantities of gold from Peak Downs and other places. The reefs at Falgai are proving daily to be of increased value. It appears that the stone which is being found there is in many instances very rich, so much so that the holders of claims are asking very large sums of money for shares in them.

**TASMANIAN REVENUE.**—The total land revenue for the last quarter of 1864 was £21,810 1s. 4d., showing an increase of £9,820 6s. 9d. over the same period of 1863. The total customs for the quarter ended December, 1864, was £33,800 1s. 7d., and the total for the quarter ended



December 31, 1863, was £33,697 10s. 2d. The total revenue, inclusive of customs and inland for the quarter ended December 31, 1864, was £47,688 16s. 6d., and the total for the corresponding period of 1863 was £48,367 1s. 3d. The total, inclusive of special receipts for the quarter, was £81,142 13s. 10d., against £56,888 9s. 8d. for the corresponding period of 1863.

**FISH CURING.**—An establishment for fish curing has been set up by a couple of speculative Chinamen, on the shores of Battery Point, near Ross Shipbuilding-yard, for the drying and curing of fish for the use of their countrymen in Victoria. The establishment covers a small section of ground fronting the bay, and consists of a commodious store-shed and drying platform. The whole has been neatly fenced in, and a small hut erected for the accommodation of the enterprising proprietors. The establishment has been well stocked with huge casks and baskets for carrying out the process of curing and packing, and altogether about £50 or £60 has been laid out to put the place in good working order. The process observed is very simple. The fish are purchased from European fishermen. They are then cut open and thoroughly cleaned, after which they are placed on the drying platforms, where they are carefully dried. This is rather a delicate part of the operation, as the fish are liable to prove bad if not constantly watched, and the heat reflected by the sun's rays so regulated as not to stream upon them too strongly. To prevent this, a tarpaulin is attached to the platform, and spread or rolled up as occasion may require. During the process the fish are dried, salted, and, when sufficiently hardened, they are packed away in Chinese baskets, to undergo the process of packing. This consists simply in casking them up in brine when they are ready for shipment, and present a similar appearance to a good white herring. The fish which have been already cured consist chiefly of salmon, perch, mullet, flathead, and the mock-trumpeter, but it is expected that any of the numerous species which abound in the waters there will find favour among the Mongolian inhabitants of Victoria.

### Obituary.

**STULLER**, the most celebrated architect in Prussia, died suddenly not long since at Berlin, at the age of 64. He was a native of that city, and a pupil of Skinkel, with whom he remained till he had attained his thirtieth year. In 1835, in conjunction with M. Stack, he published a work entitled "Designs for Cabinet Work," which had the effect of resuscitating an art then almost lost in Germany; and he afterwards contributed to the "Album" of the Architectural Society of Berlin a long series of plans for palaces, museums, fountains, and other public works, which were eventually almost all carried into execution. Having obtained the patronage of the King of Prussia, he undertook and executed, between the years 1840 and 1850, an immense number of important constructions. Besides a vast number of private residences, he built the Council Chamber of Perleberg, the new Winter Palace of St. Petersburg, the Bourse of Berlin, and that of Frankfort, the New Berlin Museum, his greatest work; he constructed and executed part of the decorations of the Royal Chapel at Berlin; he built the churches of St. Mathieu, St. George, and erections in the Zoological Gardens of the same city; he added several new apartments to the palace at Potsdam, finished the gardens of Sans Souci, and erected the palace of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, in Berlin, and yet found time to make an immense number of designs for goldsmiths' work and porcelain.

### Notes.

**SUBURBAN MUSEUMS.**—The Committee of Council have addressed a letter to upwards of two hundred gentlemen, including members of both Houses of Parliament, several clergymen, and many of the principal employers of labour in the north, east, and south of London, with reference to the establishment of Metropolitan District Museums of Science and Art, saying that "their lordships have had before them the several communications they have from time to time received on this subject, and are considering how the iron building of the South Kensington Museum may be made useful for the purpose." Those interested in the proposed establishment of these museums are invited to a meeting to be held in the lecture theatre of the South Kensington Museum, on Saturday, the 6th May, at 12 o'clock.

### Correspondence.

**MARINE ENGINES.**—SIR,—On referring to Mr. Burgh's paper on Marine Engines, in the *Journal* a few weeks since, I see it stated that the origin of the "valve-link motion" is doubtful, a recent writer fixing its application to locomotives in 1832. As this date seems an error, and the link is universally used, I may perhaps recall that about ten years later (a fatal collision having taken place through the meeting of two trains at full speed), I was struck with the imperfection of the "fork" and "hand gear" system of reversing then in use, and described by Tredgold, Wood, &c., and sent a drawing of what is now known as the "slotted-link" to Mr. Edward Bury, locomotive superintendent of the London and Birmingham Railway, at Wolverton. He much approved the design, but preferred the hand gear for his small four-wheeled engines on that line; and I wrote to some other engineers, and afterwards made a working model of the link at the College for Civil Engineers, Putney, with the approbation of the Professor of Machinery, and showed it at the annual meeting. It soon after appeared on the railways. Being a youthful student I could not follow up the idea further, and I have hitherto refrained from claiming originality for my design, which all who saw it then admitted to be novel.—I am, &c.,  
GEO. P. RENSHAW.  
Nottingham, May 2, 1865.

### MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- MON.** ...R. Geographical, 8½. 1. Capt. Toynbee, R.N., "Physical Geography of the Seas between England and India." 2. Dr. Kirk, "Rovuma River, East Africa." 3. Dr. Gunst, "Recent Travels in Unexplored Parts of Madagascar." Royal Inst., 2. General Monthly Meeting. Society of Engineers, 7. "Discussion on Mr. King's Paper on Irrigation with Town Sewage."
- TUES.** ...Society of Arts, 8. Cantor Lectures. Dr. F. Crace Calvert, "On some of the Most Important Chemical Discoveries made within the last two years." (Lecture V.) Medical and Chirurgical, 8½. Civil Engineers, 8. Renewed Discussion "On Uniform Stress in Girder Work." And, Mr. E. Fletcher, "On the Maintenance of Railway Rolling Stock." Zoological, 8½. Syro-Egyptian, 7½. Mr. Sharpe, "On the date of the Book of Revelations." Photographic, 8. Ethnological, 8. Rev. F. W. Farrar, "On Language in Relation to Ethnology." 2. Sir Woodbine Parish, "On the Indians of South America." Royal Inst., 4. Prof. Frankland, "On Organic Chemistry."
- WED.** ...Society of Arts, 8. Captain Selwyn, "On the Art of Laying Submarine Cables from Ships." Geological, 8. Graphic, 8. Microscopical, 8. Literary Fund, 3. Archaeological Assoc., 4½. Annual Meeting.
- THURS.** ...Royal, 8½. Antiquaries, 8. R. Society Club, 6. Royal Inst., 4. Prof. Frankland, "On Organic Chemistry."



- FRI.....Astronomical, 8.  
Royal Inst., 8. Mr. Frederick Field, F.R.S., "On Magenta and other Dyes."  
SAT.....R. Botanic, 3½.  
Royal Inst., 4. Prof. Bain, "On the Physical Accompaniments of Mind."

# PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS.

## SESSIONAL PRINTED PAPERS.

- Par.  
Numb.  
54. Bill—Municipal Corporation (Ireland) Act Amendment.  
152. Malta and Alexandria Telegraph—Accounts.  
154. Crown Debts and Obligations—Return.

SESSION 1864.

- 507 (A IX). Poor Rates and Pauperism—Return (A.)  
577. Taxes in Europe—Return.

*Delivered on 29th March, 1865.*

68. Bills—Judgments (Ireland).  
92. " Trusts Administration (Scotland).  
98. " Trespass (Scotland).  
3 (292 to 297). Railway and Canal, &c., Bills—Board of Trade Reports, Parts 292 to 297.  
155. Railway, &c., Bills—Return.  
176. Deaths of Seamen—Return.  
177. Spirits—Returns.

*Delivered on 5th April, 1865.*

97. Bills—Educational and Charitable Institutions.  
99. " Public Offices (Site and Approaches) (as amended by the Select Committee).  
100. " India Offices (Site and Approaches) (as amended by the Select Committee).  
102. " Commissioners of Supply Meetings (Scotland).  
3 (298 and 299). Railway and Canal, &c., Bills—Board of Trade Reports, Parts 298 and 299.  
90 (v). Civil Service Estimates (Class V.)  
147. Doe Park and Bradford Reservoirs—Further Correspondence.  
160. County Courts, &c.—Return.  
Manufactures, Commerce, &c.—Reports (No. 8.)

*Delivered on 6th April, 1865.*

103. Bill—Bankruptcy and Insolvency (Ireland) Act Amendment—Lords Amendments.  
62. East India (Oude)—Papers.  
92 (vii). Civil Service Estimates (Class VII.)  
178. Open Spaces (Metropolis)—First Report of Select Committee.  
184. War Office—Reports relating to the Organization.

*Delivered on 7th April, 1865.*

104. Bill—Commissioners of Supply (Scotland).  
56 (vi). Weights and Measures (Metropolis)—Returns.  
168. Night Refuges (Metropolis)—Return.  
171. Metropolis Sewage and Essex Reclamation Bill—Special Report and Evidence from the Select Committee.

# Patents.

*From Commissioners of Patents Journal, April 28th.*

## GRANTS OF PROVISIONAL PROTECTION.

- Bedsteads—149—E. Deane.  
Boilers—974—J. Brown.  
Bolts, machinery for manufacture of railway—992—T. Wilkes.  
Brushes, rotating—920—J. Drinkwater.  
Burglary, signals and alarms in the event of—975—J. S. Watson and A. Horwood.  
Cables, construction of submarine telegraph—1031—W. E. Newton.  
Carriages, couplings for railway—1035—J. Dadley.  
Chains, forming the links of—1004—A. Homfray.  
Corks, apparatus for shaping—1065—J. McDowall.  
Cotton, machinery for preparing—998—M. S. Maynard.  
Cooking utensils—1041—F. P. Warren.  
Cuffs, ornamenting linen—1010—J. Debnam.  
Cylinders, cushions for steam—1079—F. C. Bakewell.  
Door locks—1043—J. Walker.  
Dyeing, colouring matters for—705—F. Wise.  
Engines, apparatus to actuate the valves of—982—J. G. Jones.  
Engines, electro-magnetic—1012—S. Moore.  
Fabrics, machinery for folding—1057—W. S. Yates.  
Files, heating—1020—W. Brooks.  
Flour, dressing of—898—W. Savory.  
Frames, clamps for stretching—1039—H. Bridson.  
Furnaces—240—C. De Bergue.  
Fuze—1049—J. S. Bickford.  
Gases, method of mixing—997—W. Jackson.  
Glass, preventing corrosion of the surface of—984—W. B. Richards.  
Gloves, boxing, &c.—382—H. Emanuel.  
Harrows, &c.—978—J. Badger.  
Injector, Giffard—1051—A. V. Newton.  
Instands—1089—J. Merritt.  
Invalids, support for—1069—T. E. Harding.  
Iron—1023—C. Vaughan.

- Lace, machinery for the manufacture of—1087—R. A. Brooman.  
Land, machine for tilling—671—E. A. Phillips.  
Machine, destroying the momentum of heavy bodies by an elastic—321—C. R. Markham.  
Machine, hand drilling—1015—J. White.  
Meat, machine for cutting—1077—A. W. Hale.  
Metals, planing and shaping—856—J. Todd.  
Nail—994—J. Brown.  
Napkins, apparatus for weaving borders on—3190—W. D. Gedge.  
Oils, increasing the illuminating power of hydro-carbon—980—G. Davies.  
Paddle-wheels—935—W. C. Gollings.  
Petroleum, apparatus for storing—1027—R. A. Brooman.  
Pistons, metallic—1059—S. Dawson, J. Burgess, and J. Wilson.  
Ploughshares, &c.—296—W. E. and J. Gray.  
Property, safes for securing—1000—T. Skidmore.  
Railway trains, signalling on—1055—A. Westhead.  
Rifle shooting, supporting and steadying the arm in—1014—J. B. Hausman.  
Rivers, apparatus for deepening—1017—C. F. Gheerbrant.  
Rocks, apparatus for boring—981—J. H. Johnson.  
Rods, tapered—1018—R. A. Brooman.  
Safes, fire-proof—439—A. Clark.  
Safes, locking arrangements for—1045—J. M. Hart.  
Scrolls, apparatus for cutting—928—J. Kennan.  
Ships, lighting and ventilating—995—H. Edmonds.  
Ships, compositions for preventing the fouling of—1008—G. Davies.  
Smoke, apparatus for purifying—1001—M. Henry.  
Spinning, apparatus for preparing cotton for—990—J. Thompson.  
Steam generators—1029—J. H. Johnson.  
Stones, machinery for cutting—1093—M. Vogl.  
Swings, rotatory aerial—1073—J. J. Matthewson and H. L. R. Schlee.  
Tables, portable frames and joints for—542—C. Whiting.  
Tin, manufacture of—1081—J. J. Jenkins.  
Trucks, apparatus for covering railway—1075—E. and G. H. Morgan.  
Watches—1033—L. B. Phillips.  
Weaving, looms for—1061—C. Turner and T. Room.  
Weights, pulleys for lifting—1091—F. W. Gilbert.  
Wheels, steel tires for railway—878—F. W. Webb.  
Umbrellas, rib holders for—918—T. K. Mace.

## INVENTIONS WITH COMPLETE SPECIFICATIONS FILED.

- Capes, &c.—1128—J. Emary.  
Maps, dissected—1137—H. A. Bonneville.

## PATENTS SEALED.

- |                                     |                               |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 2700. P. A. Roger.                  | 2731. F. S. Gilbert.          |
| 2704. W. Smith.                     | 2732. F. L. Bauwens.          |
| 2705. R. Richardson.                | 2737. R. K. and K. T. Bowley. |
| 2711. J. Drury.                     | 2744. M. J. Roberts.          |
| 2719. C. Garton and T. Hill.        | 2778. J. D. and A. P. Welch.  |
| 2720. E. T. Hughes.                 | 2779. G. B. Galloway.         |
| 2722. E. G. Brewer.                 | 3073. J. Ramsbottom.          |
| 2723. H. W. Spencer and J. E. Ball. | 89. J. Ramsbottom.            |
| 2726. W. Bayliss.                   | 375. J. Ramsbottom.           |
|                                     | 643. J. Dean.                 |

*From Commissioners of Patents Journal, May 2nd.*

## PATENTS SEALED.

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| 2733. F. Yates.                            | 2801. W. L. Lees.                        |
| 2734. F. Yates.                            | 2812. C. Mohr and S. E. Smith.           |
| 2740. J. Sullivan.                         | 2829. P. A. le Comte de Fontaine-Moreau. |
| 2741. J. Snider, jun.                      | 2856. S. C. Kreeft.                      |
| 2748. A. Estourneaux and L. Beauchamps.    | 2901. W. E. Newton.                      |
| 2751. W. Thrift.                           | 2921. P. Garnett.                        |
| 2766. R. Rimmer.                           | 2922. J. Paley & T. Rawsthorne.          |
| 2769. L. C. Meaulle.                       | 2960. M. A. F. Menmons.                  |
| 2772. A. Bechem & H. Wedekind.             | 3160. H. Bird.                           |
| 2785. J. Dale. H. Caro, and C. A. Martius. | 3205. A. V. Newton.                      |
| 2797. H. Brockett.                         | 210. T. Steel.                           |
|  | 481. R. Willison.                        |
|  | 630. G. Nimmo.                           |

## PATENTS ON WHICH THE STAMP DUTY OF £50 HAS BEEN PAID.

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|------------------------------|---|
| 1214. J. Elder.              | 1293. W. Bodden & W. Mercer.                      |
| 1221. W. Fisk.               | 1301. M. Paul.                                    |
| 1247. J. W. and F. G. Caley. | 1253. J. Ross.                                    |
| 1262. W. Clark.              | 1279. W. Staufen.                                 |
| 1245. G. R. Farnson.         | 1281. J. M. Napier.                               |
| 1268. G. Davies.             | 1318. J. Fowler.                                  |
| 1265. A. and B. Travis.      | 1355. J. E. Ransome, W. Copping, and L. Lansdell. |
| 1275. J. Oxley.              |   |

## PATENTS ON WHICH THE STAMP DUTY OF £100 HAS BEEN PAID.

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|--------------------|----------------|
| 938. D. E. Hughes. | 969. W. Clark. |
|--------------------|----------------|

# Registered Designs.

- Life Belt—April 21—4708—Captain John Ross Ward, R.N., 14 John-street, Adelphi, W.C.  
Lever and Spring for Spinning Frame Rollers—April 21—4708—W. Oxley and Co., Manchester.